The Colonization Herald
AND GENERAL REGISTER.

CONDUCTED BY THE PENNSYLVANIA COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

WHATSOEVER YE WOULD THAT MEN SHOULD DO TO YOU, DO YE EVEN SO TO THEM.

VOL. I.—NEW SERIES. PHILADELPHIA, WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1838. NO. 47.

From the Baltimore Literary and Religious Magazine.

STATISTICS OF CRIME AND PUNISHMENT.

Condition of things in Pennsylvania.

We have again and again urged the importance of exact statistical information, upon every subject to which that great and neglected science pertains. In all practical affairs, it is the science of sciences; the rectifier of error, the revealer of truth, the corrector of mistakes, the test of all theories, the proof of all laws, the master key to the well being of society. And yet of all knowledge, statistical knowledge is the most rare. On which account it is, that so few people are really of any use, morally considered, in the economy of society.

There are under our eyes, at the present moment, two documents from the two principal cities in Pennsylvania, of high importance in regard to the subject embraced in the caption of these remarks. One is the "*Ninth Annual Report of the Inspectors of the Eastern State Penitentiary of Pennsylvania; read in the Senate and House of Representatives*—February 8, 1838;" the other is the presentment of the "*Grand Inquest in and for the City of Pittsburgh*," to the judges of the Mayor's Court, in regard to the common jail; and is dated June 16, 1838. The "*Eastern State Penitentiary*," as our readers are probably aware, is the new prison in Philadelphia, in which are confined all persons convicted of felonies, and condemned to two years or more imprisonment, from the city and county of Philadelphia; and also all other felons from the whole of the counties lying east of the mountains—no matter to what length of confinement condemned. It is also known that this prison has been constructed without regard to expense, and on the most approved and matured principles—expressly as a model prison. A report, therefore, which gives a general summary of eight years' experience, and a particular account of the last year of the eight, in such an institution, ought to be received with great attention by all who take an interest in the solution of the great and difficult problems involved in the subjects of the prevention and punishment of crime.

The principal facts in the report on the jail at Pittsburgh seem to be, that the house itself is dark, sombre, ill ventilated, confined, and ill arranged; that as to its condition, it is dirty, its atmosphere damp, heavy, chilly, confined, and offensive; the accommodations of the prisoners are more than insinuated to be bad as to food, and dreadful as to lodging; their beds consisting only of a little straw in a bunk, covered over with a loose covering of coarse muslin, and the very decencies of life outraged by the extreme filth and unavoidable exposure of maniacs and insane persons, kept in the same tier of cells with the convicts; as to this mixing of insane persons with the prisoners, the court add a note, expressive of their ignorance of any authority, by which this manifest injury to the health and convenience of persons put there by law, should be perpetrated; and as to health, the grand inquest are convinced that the effluvia of the place must be decidedly injurious to its inmates; that the mode of lodging, in reference to health, requires immediate attention, and that the health of those confined must be surely enervated, their physical condition brought to decay, &c. &c. This report is signed by *George Darsie*, Foreman, and fourteen other persons; and it is certified by *J. S. McMillan*, as Clerk, to have been read, approved, and ordered to be printed by the court.

We forbear to make any comment on such a state of case as this. We take it for granted that every man in Pittsburgh would blush to read the report, or this synopsis of it; and for ourselves we are unspeakably astonished to learn that such a state of things could exist any where in the United States; but especially in Pennsylvania—and that in the second city in the commonwealth. What renders these revelations the more dreadful is, that the fate here portrayed is that of *innocent* as well as guilty men; if not indeed of innocent men, chiefly of persons confined before trial; of persons arrested on mesne process; of persons not even accused, but merely put in for safe keeping; as witnesses, for example, unable to find sufficient bail in recognizances; of the unfortunate, as debtors, &c. &c. Truly, Pennsylvania must look into these matters, or she will not only loose her good name, but become a hissing, instead of an honourable proverb in the nation.

The prison at Philadelphia, as our previous remarks show, is intended only for convicted felons. And the report before us shows how much better it may be, in a multitude of respects, for a man to be guilty in one part of Pennsylvania rather than be unfortunate in another; how much better to steal in Philadelphia, than to go in debt in Pittsburgh: to kill, to burn, to rob, to ravish, on this side of the Alleghanies, than to endorse for a friend, to be mistaken in the value of pig iron, or to be poor and a witness, on the other! These are horrible anomalies; and although, beyond doubt, the prison and its directors are clear of all blame, while the jail and its are worthy of all, in the premises, the case penetrates to the vitals of the subject, and of society. It is in vain to talk about reform of men *convicted*, by means of *prison* discipline, while men *suspected*, or men not even suspected, but *only unfortunate*, are demoralized by *jail* discipline. For let it be remembered, that while every convict that enters a prison, comes into it through the jail, thousands who are confined in jail return thence to society.

We will now turn our attention to the mass of interesting matter contained in the general summary of the eight years' experience which this prison furnishes, and of which a pretty full abstract is annexed to the excellent report before us; as well as to the details and principles of the report itself, for the single year.

1. The number and nativity of the criminals give us 858 individuals admitted into the prison during the eight years of its existence, from 1830 to 1837, both inclusive; and they are reported to have been born in thirty-eight different states and kingdoms—embracing in that number no less than twenty of our own commonwealths. Nothing could more clearly reveal two important facts, in regard to the social condition of this whole nation, namely: (1) the original heterogeneousness of our population, and (2) the hereditary strength of the migratory principle within us.

Of the whole number 139, being one-fifth of the whole, were born in foreign countries; and out of that number 65 were Irishmen—being one-thirteenth of the whole number of convicts. In a population of which not one in twenty is a foreigner—and not one in fifty an Irishman—these facts speak rather hardly of all the foreign, and very decidedly so of the Irish population. We commend them to the country, as a matter for meditation, in connexion with the naturalization laws, and the privileges of citizenship; and to the calm inquirer into the merits of the Papal religion, which teaches these warm tempered and unruly men, idle forms and degrading ceremonies, instead of principles of virtue and habits of order.

The average of the eight years is below the item for the last year of the eight. During it, every fourth convict was a foreigner; and every ninth one an Irishman. The evil therefore is constantly increasing.

2. In regard to the ages of the convicts, there were under twenty years of age 104; between twenty and forty 659; and above forty 125.

From this it appears that the great bulk of crimes are committed during the prime of life, and therefore at the very period where there ought to be most average restraint, and least average temptation; and during which, if any reliance could be placed on the excellence of human nature, it ought to be most pure, being then at its perfect development. The inference is obvious enough.

But it still further appears, that far more crime is committed in the last period of life than in the first; that is after forty, than before twenty. And if we call to remembrance the fact, that the number of persons that reaches 20 is vastly greater than that which reaches 40, we shall be struck with the force of the proof now exhibited, that the concluding years of man are far more prone to crime than his commencing ones. From hence, as from every other view of the subject, it is manifest that *young* convicts are ordinarily persons of peculiarly depraved characters; and that they require in all respects, and from all considerations, a peculiar mode of treatment, in order to reclaim them.

The item on this subject, like most if not all others in the report for the single year which it covers, fully bears out the general average: viz. for that single year, under 20 years of age, there were 13 convicts; between 20 and 40 there were 128; and above 40 there were 20.

3. Of the 858 crimes for which the same number of persons have been convicted, there were against the person and personal rights of others 78; against property 770; besides 10, not falling certainly under either class (6, for example, being *perjury*, might fall under both classes, or neither, as the case might be.) That is, about nine-tenths of the whole, are crimes against property. Of the 78 against the person, 59 may be said to have originated in anger, and 20 in lust: of the former, 41 were cases of killing; and of the latter 16 were rapes or attempts to commit them. That is, out of the personal offences, 57 in 78 were of the very highest grade.

It is to be regretted that nothing in the report gives us any clue to the period of life, at which particular offences were committed. And yet this point is not only a most curious subject of enquiry, but must, when it is investigated, shed much light on the moral progression of the human soul, as well as on the practical effects of given states of society, as compared with each other.

This exhibit presents, in a very clear light, the facts that in Pennsylvania the personal security of individuals is much greater than the security of property, and that the former is either not violated, or its violations not punished except in cases peculiarly outrageous; and that the character of the criminals, and therefore of the period, is the reverse of sanguinary. We observe that the report for the last year exhibits some confirmation of the general averages, on both these points, showing a progressive amelioration. Out of 161 convictions for that year, 15 only were for offences against the person—being about one eleventh of the whole; and of these the proportion of aggravated cases is on the whole diminished.

There can be no higher evidence of an exalted state of mere civilization, than that the persons of men are esteemed by all to be sacred, and in all private respects inviolable. There can be no higher evidence, on the other hand, of the prevalence of an imperfect morality, a defective religious instruction, and an unenlightened condition of the public conscience, than an extensive commission of petty offences against property. Not presuming to judge absolutely, we are obliged to conclude, relatively, that in eastern Pennsylvania civilization, simply considered, is in a more advanced state than pure religion or even sound morality. We apprehend this to be very remarkably the fact, at the present moment, throughout the greatest portion of this nation, and the world. Will the people of God never comprehend the vastness and glory of their dispensation?

4. We pass next to the moral and educational condition of the prisoners. Out of 858, there were 415 who could both read and write; 217 who could read, but not write; and only 226 who could neither read nor write. Above one-half being unable to obtain other than manual employment; for in this country a man who can't write, indeed who is not tolerably well educated, is deprived of nine-tenths of the higher stimuli to exertion, which operate on his fellows. The state is more bound to see that its citizens are educated, than to see that the poor are fed; for with us knowledge is a more imperative necessity than bread.

Out of 858, as many as 622 were drunkards; 39 were drinkers, though not drunkards; 10 were not classified; and 187 called themselves sober. It is highly probable, however, that even these were the children of drunken parents, and hence their victims, or were in some other way cursed by this all pervading iniquity. But take the best that can be said, and it appears that only about one in five of all the convicts through eight years experience in an extensive prison could call themselves sober. With the vast experience now existing on this subject, we may say that tippling leads as naturally to ruin, as the most aggravated diseases do to death. Can any man prove that any particular disease kills four out of five of all the dead, in any particular city, or country, or graveyard? But here are four out of five in this prison who were tipplers! Then a man who tipples is more likely to be led to prison as its fruit, than he who has cholera, small pox, or yellow fever, is to be conveyed to his grave by it! What have our makers and venders, or lawgivers and law-expounders to say to these things? *Vengeance is mine*, saith the Lord—*I will repay!*

So again of these 858, there were 514 who were never *bound* to any master, to learn any trade or calling; there were 185 who, being bound, left their masters; and 159 who were bound and served till 21 years of age. We cannot gather from these facts how many were raised to any regular calling, or had been trained and were competent to conduct any sort of regular business. This is the great point on which information is needed, on this branch of the subject. The strong probability, however, seems to be that the great majority had no regular business. Add this to the fact stated above, that a like majority had no competent education, and it will no longer appear surprising that they should become convicts. A man without education, and without a competent knowledge of some employment by which to live by labour, and besides this a tippler, it were strange if such an one escaped both prison and poor-house. But, what folly is it to talk about prison discipline, when the state itself makes its own criminals? Until the state provides for the education of all its people—and sees that every one is obliged to be brought up to some sure and competent livelihood, and then takes away all public temptation—until the state does this, *at least*, the true place to settle the subject of prison discipline is in the legislature, and in the statute book. It is mournful to reflect on the immense proportion of these convicts who were once apprentices—344 out of 858 were once apprentices! The masters of these boys will have a heavy debt to answer for before God. And for what, but ruin, do the great mass of our apprentices appear to be training? These boys might be the glory of our country: instead of that, they are made too often a curse, by the very force of training. Let any man examine this subject, as it relates to our good city of Baltimore, and if he has a heart, it will be wrung with anguish. The masters seldom take the apprentices into their families; rarely provide for their religious instruction; expect only so much work; and leave them afterwards to themselves. There are a few honourable exceptions; but this is an accurate general description. Indeed many refuse to have boys bound to them, least they should incur obligations which they do not wish to fulfil; and only take boys by a sort of broom-stick engagement with them, their parents or friends: the public and the courts meantime conniving at the destruction of the boy. Nay, the public sentiment is itself absolutely dead on the subject. There is no public advantage of any sort, that we know of, enjoyed by the apprentices of Baltimore—such as are common elsewhere, and might easily be provided here. No libraries nor reading rooms for their use; no lyceum nor institute for their instruction; no bond of union amongst themselves, but common wickedness; nor any common effort to do them good. See the frightful result. If this report is to be trusted, nearly one-half of the convicts of their generation will be furnished out of this small and most interesting class. Well may they say, no man careth for our souls.

Here follows an important fact for the Papists. Their priests and doctrines inculcate that marriage is, in some sort, a hindrance to the practice of virtue. We refer our readers, for the full discussion of this and other parts of the question of marriage, to the able series of articles which we are publishing, in relation to *Celibacy in the Papal Church*. Meantime, this report informs us that of 858 felons, 541 had never been married; 55 were widows and widowers; 1 a divorced person; and 261 only were married. By turning to a previous page it will be seen that the great mass of these persons, perhaps every one of them, were of marriageable years. If we will reflect also, we will perceive that the great bulk of society of suitable years is made up of married persons. Then we shall be more capable of weighing the vast importance of this testimony in favour of the virtuous influences of marriage, and in proof of the criminal tendencies of celibacy. Small as the proportion of unmarried persons, of mature age, is in this country, it appears to contain more than three times as much aggregate corruption as the immense mass of the married: in other words, as nearly as we can conjecture, the chances of crime if a *man* be single (for nearly all these convicts were men) are above twenty times, perhaps above fifty times, as great as they would be, if the men were married. What say you to that, Mr. Eccleston? And you, Mr. Gildea? Nepotism, (*or Nephewism*, as they have no sons) is a word coined, to express by the priests and prelates, the correlative of the idea revealed by these statistics.

5. We have said nearly the whole number of convicts were males. Here, as on the other points, there is a statement for the whole period, and another for the eighth year. Of 161 persons convicted the last year, 3 only were females; and of these only *one* was a white woman. This is exceedingly delightful. For if the mothers and wives of the land be pure, the first grand step is taken towards making the husbands and fathers and sons of it pure also. Cursed and abhorred of God, and ripe for perdition, is that land where women are corrupt.

For our own parts, we incline to think that the true principles of female punishment are but illy understood. For example, nothing is more clear than that they ought to be confined, if at all, in prisons wholly separate and apart from those of the men. So, too, certain punishments, apparently equal, are really far more severe upon females than males. And again, from the actual state of society, the encouragements to reform are much fewer in their case than in that of the robuster sex; and therefore the *fact* of punishment is a much more serious obstacle to future virtue and usefulness. To which add that punishment so far as it is remedial, and intended for example, is in no sort of proportion, less needed, in the actual state of crime for the female than the male sex. We are convinced that no public influence, by the punishment of this solitary white woman, can be a thousandth part as valuable as it would have been to record that not one had been convicted. It is often a help to trembling virtue to avert the face from its weakness; and crime is sometimes the most happily rebuked by forgiveness. Besides this, the open exposure of the persons, the offences, or even the names of females, is decidedly hurtful to public morals, as well as fatal to the taste, the sensibility, and the exalted sentiment of a people. It were better for the law to presume that females cannot commit the more odious offences, and so overlook, as far as possible, all such cases; or presume madness, and treat them accordingly; or by some humane and wise device, evade the evils of their exposure and punishment, in a multitude of cases, rather than incur the risk of more terrible ills than any which their inadequate punishment could produce.

6. There is a portion in these statistics for many, if not for all—one for the abolitionists follows. Of the 858 convicts, 544 were white; and 314 coloured. Of the white persons 12, or one in more than forty-five were females; of the blacks 24, or one in thirteen were females. That is, coloured males are thirteen times worse than coloured females; but white males are forty-five times worse than white females. But comparing the two colours, it would result, that if there were just the same number of white and black females, the latter would be by the facts, just twice as bad as the former. But when the actual proportion of these to each other is considered, it seems that the black females are out of comparison the most corrupt. Thus it is stated, on p. 10 of the report, that for the eighth year, for example, the black convicts are thirteen hundredths of that population; and as we have shown above that every thirteenth of these convicts is a female, it follows that the female convictions were one-hundredth of the black population, for a single year. That is, out of every hundred negroes, twelve men and one woman are annually put into this single prison. But of the whites, it is stated, on p. 11, that the proportion for the same year is three five hundredths of that population; and we have shown above that the white female convictions are to the white male, as one to forty-five, not quite. That is, that one white man is yearly sent to this prison for every 167 of the white population; and one white woman for every 7515. In other words, the black men are 22 times more corrupt than the white; and the black women 75 times more so than the white; and still further, that the most corrupt classes of the whites are better, in the proportion of 22 to 13, than the best classes of the blacks.

These are hard conclusions, by force of which to persuade men to the *duty* of amalgamation, as based amongst other foundations on that of equal purity of the races. They are doubly difficult to digest, as being revealed in the very region where most has been done for the black race; and where they have for the longest period, and to the greatest heighth of pretension, by themselves and by their advocates, claimed equality with the whites. This population has lately been disfranchised in Pennsylvania; and that equally, whether the old constitution stand, or the new be adopted; in the former case, by a judical construction of the law—in the latter, by a positive provision of the constitution. If *any qualification*, of any sort, be salutary in a republic, as the basis of the supremest rights, then it is hard to conjecture how a more imperious necessity could be laid on a commonwealth, than obviously existed here—to take from the corrupt, the ignorant, and the incompetent, a function useless to them, if not hurtful, in their actual condition—derogatory to liberty, and dangerous to the state.*

7. In all this subject, nothing is of more importance than its *moral* influence. We consider those theories perfectly absurd which regard the benefit of the individual punished as the only or even the chief end of punishment. The security and the benfiit of society are justly to be consulted, at whetever cost to the guilty; and the duty, nay the permission, to regard the guilty is subordinate to other and higher considerations. It is true that society has no right to punish cruelly or illimitably; and signally true, that it has no right to punish those whom it has itself made criminal, by bad or by imperfect laws. Hence, the double duty to be merciful in punishment, and to adjust it, as far as its prime object will allow, to the benefit of the guilty. In this way, a recompense may sometimes be made for human errors; and as it may often occur that the guilty are victims of society itself, this remuneration may mitigate that evil, that its punishments may frequently be unspeakable blessings. There are great errors also abroad in the world as to the necessarily reformitory character of punishment, in itself considered; and from hence, unreasonable and exaggerated expectations are too often formed of the influence of certain systems in this respect. The highly respectable Inspectors tell us in their report, in general terms, that they have reason to be gratified at the general working of the system of this prison; and add instances in which, within their own knowledge, the most admirable effects have followed confinement in it. To these they add benevolent suggestions, such as their experience has culled, for the more effectual and humane execution of their plan of discipline.

We observe however that the facts they furnish on the subject of reconvictions, have a mournful emphasis. Of the 858 convictions, 590 were the first; 167 the second; 65 the third; 23 the fourth; 6 the sixth; 6 the seventh; and 1 the ninth time. Nearly one third of all—old offenders. And this is more than borne out, by the report for the eighth year; during which 59, of 161 convictions were old offenders; some of them convicted for the fifth and sixth times. Of 471 who have served out their full time and been discharged from this prison, 47 have been convicted and sent back to it. And of the 161 received during the eighth year, 19—or one in eight nearly—had been in this prison before. The directors say, they "have never had a female prisoner reconvicted." And the warden in his report adds this solemn testimony: "drunkenness, is the principal cause of these reconvictions, as it is also of a large proportion of the first convictions."

8. The last subject to which we will call attention, is the influence of confinement, and especially *solitary* confinement (which is exclusively adopted in this prison)—upon the health of the prisoners. The report is full, and we will add, most satisfactory on this subject. The Inspectors say "the experience of another year enables us to state that no instance of insanity has occurred in this institution, which has been produced by solitary or separate confinement, operating injuriously on the mind." They add, that persons, who have been confined six, seven, and eight years, are not only in perfect health, but "amongst the healthiest persons, are those who have been the longest time in prison."

There is annexed to the report of the Inspectors, one from Dr. Darrach, the physician to the prison; which is full of interest. There is very little information in possession of the public, which goes to illustrate the mutual influence of crime and disease upon each other. This report of Dr. Darrach, contains a statement of the health of the convicts, when admitted, as well as when discharged; and therefore sheds some light on the subject just indicated, as well as on the important one of the influence of imprisonment on health. The first important fact drawn from his report, is, that on the whole, the influences of the confinement have been obviously and decidedly beneficial, in regard to health; the aggregate of persons in sound health, being greater, in a given number of those dismissed from the prison, than of those received into it. The second and not less interesting fact, is that a majority of the criminals, when admitted, are in imperfect health. Thus for the eighth year, of 101 whites admitted, 59 were in imperfect health; and of the 60 blacks, 35 were so. Now shall we conclude, that disease, especially when it is chronic in its character is favourable to crime; or that previous crimes had produced these diseases; or that these unhappy prisoners had lost their health in the confinement on mesne process, before their trial, in such prisons as that at Pittsburgh, of which we have spoken in the fore part of this article? Most of these diseases are, apparently chronic; many of them it is true are such as indicate a state of vice at some period of life; but, some, also are congenital. It would be rash to express a decided opinion, on grounds so slender as exist here; nor would we venture one even after some reflection and investigation. But we incline to think, it will turn out, whenever the subject is examined—that while crime is decidedly hurtful to health—on the other hand, disease is itself a high occasion, and often a direct cause of many kinds of crime. We observe, that the solitary confinement, and general system of the prison, bears harder on the blacks than on the whites. A new proof, of their inferior condition, both as to habits of labour, and mental improvement.

We have been seduced much father than we intended into this, to us, deeply interesting subject. It is one of the highest praises of the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, that she was the earliest in modern times to take up the subject of punishment by confinement; and that she has been amongst the most steadfast and successful, in developing its humane and sufficient character. It is indubitably and long ago, proved to be ample, to satisfy all demands, of the state, in all ordinary cases. Now let it be made effectual, as it relates to the convicts themselves; not only to preserve them in safety, but, if possible, in health, and without expense, beyond their own earnings—and with moral and intellectual improvement, suitable either for a return to society, or an endless departure from it.

From the Southern Churchman.

RELIGIOUS CHARACTER OF WASHINGTON.

In the last number of the North American, there is a long review of the last two volumes of the Life and Writings of this great and good man, by Jared Sparks, near the close of which the reviewer glances at some of the evidences of Washington's religious character, purporting to be derived entirely from the volumes under review, but which we cannot but think must have been derived in part from the excellent volume published awhile since by the Rev. Mr. McGuire, of Fredericksburg, and which we hope will yet be found in every American family. The opinion of both Mr. Sparks and his reviewer, is however the same, and it is one which takes away from the infidel any countenance he might hope to derive from the Father of our country. As this invaluable work is about to be republished in England, France, and Germany, we trust that it will be the means of diffusing throughout the political mass in each of those countries not only the principles of true liberty, but a higher respect for the Christian religion. That such a result will take place in our own country, wherever the work shall be read, we cannot doubt, unless the sentiment shall prevail, which few honest men will cherish, that religion had nothing to do in making the illustrious Washington.

The extract is as follows—

The religious character of Washington is the subject of a very interesting annotation in the twelfth volume of Mr. Sparks' work. He observes that he engages in the inquiry, not because the subject requires an argument, but because there have been "in certain quarters, discussions tending to throw doubts over his religious belief; whether from ignorance of his character and writings, or from causes less creditable," Mr. Sparks does not decide. He states, that there is a uniform tradition in the neighbourhood where he was was born and educated, that he was brought up under religious influences. His early manuscripts, still preserved, contain traces of serious religious impressions. In his first campaigns in the old war, religious service was regularly performed in the little army under his command, and profane swearing was forbidden by him under severe penalties. While he lived at Mount Vernon, in the interval between the French war and the Revolution, he was elected a vestryman in two several parishes, and took an active part in church affairs. In 1774, a fastday was appointed by the House of Burgesses, of which he was a member, and there is an entry in his diary, that he "went to church, and fasted all day." This diary was kept for several years with great particularity, and a Sabbath day rarely occurs, on which it does not appear that he went to church. The nearest church to Mount Vernon was seven miles distant. His orderly book, throughout the Revolution, contains innumerable proofs of the importance which he attached to religious observances and influences; and there is not wanting evidence, that he was even favourable to a legal provision for the support of teachers of religion by a general tax. It was his practice to attend church in the forenoon. The afternoon of Sunday he passed alone in his room, and the evening with his family. An old and intimate friend would sometimes visit him on that evening, but general visiting and visiters were prohibited. He appears, during the Revolution, to have intermitted his participation of the sacrament; though a striking instance of his communing, while the army was encamped at Morristown, is recorded in Dr. Hosack's "Life of De Witt Clinton." Mr. Robert Lewis, of Fredericksburg, was a nephew of Washington, and his private secretary during the first part of the Revolution. He of course lived with him on terms of intimacy. He informed Mr. Sparks, in 1827, "that he had accidentally witnessed his private devotions in his library both morning and evening; that on those occasions he had seen him in a kneeling posture, with a Bible open before him, and that he believed such to have been his daily practice." Mr. Sparks sums up the point in the following manner:

"After a long and minute examination of the writings of Washington, public and private, in print and in manuscript, I can affirm, that I have never seen a single hint, or expression, from which it could be inferred, that he had any doubt of the Christian revelation, or that he thought with indifference or unconcern of that subject. On the contrary, whenever he approaches it, and indeed whenever he alludes in any manner to religion, it is done with seriousness and reverence.

"The foregoing observations have been made, not by way of argument, but merely as a statement of facts; for I must end, as I began, by saying, that I conceive any attempt at argument in so plain a case would be misapplied. If a man, who spoke, wrote, and acted as a Christian through a long life, who gave numerous proofs of his believing himself to be such, and who was never kown to say, write, or do a thing contrary to his professions, if such a man is not to be ranked among the believers of Christianity, it would be impossible to establish the point by any train of reasoning. How far he examined the grounds of his faith is uncertain, but probably as far as the large portion of Christians, who do not make theology a special study; and we have a right to presume, that a mind like his would not receive an opinion without a satisfactory reason. He was educated in the Episcopal Church, to which he always adhered; and my conviction is, that he believed in the fundamental doctrines of Christianity as usually taught in that Church, according to his understanding of them; but without a particle of intolerance, or disrespect for the faith and modes of worship adopted by Christians of other denominations."—Vol. xii. p. 411.

THE BRITISH NAVY.

An uneasy and restless feeling is obtaining possession of the public mind in relation to the state of our naval efficiency. While the marines of France, Russia, and the United States have rapidly increased, the former from annihilation, the Russian from non-entity, and the latter from the first elements of a navy, an impression has gone abroad, and taken strong hold of the public feeling, that the British navy has retrograded. The old principle that it was essential to the maritime preponderance of England that her navy doubled that of all the powers of the world united, seems to be altogether lost sight of, and a gradual system of paring down the marine establishments, and reducing the number and equipage of ships of war to the lowest possible scale to have been adopted since the year 1815, when we had upwards of a thousand ships of war afloat, to the present moment when we have but 194 in commission. It is an ill-judged economy that would impair in the slightest degree our naval superiority; and a most detestable policy that would discourage or neglect those gallant men to whom the country may have again to look in the hour of peril, or in the assertion of the honour and interests of Great Britain. No mortification would be so deeply felt by us as any check upon the ocean, and the popular indignation would be instantly roused against the men who had neglected the condition of the navy, misappropriated the means for its increase, or had blindly allowed the forces of other countries to obtain an equality or superiority over ours. This is the worst degree of treason against the prosperity of our immense empire. At present we have the opportunity of giving the actual number and disposition of the British navy as it was ascertained last month

---

* We retain the above paragraph in order to preserve the continuity of the article, but we do not join in the opinions of the writer.—*Ed. Col. Herald.*

with several facts relative to the French marine, which may serve as a contrast between our lukewarmness on the subject and the ever-vigilant activity of our naval and commercial rivals. In the French dock-yards there are now building 27 ships of the line, and 37 frigates; and they have at sea 24 ships of the line, and 36 frigates. England has 15 sail of the line afloat (being 12 less than France,) and 19 frigates of from 50 to 28 guns each (being 17 less than our neighbours;) the remainder of our force consists of cruizers and small vessels of 26 guns, and downwards to six and three. We stated that the navy of England, in commission, was composed of 194 vessels; the following tabular view of this force will present it in a clearer summary. Of the 194 ships,

		Guns.
6	First rates with an aggregate of	662
5	Second-rates do.	416
14	Third-rates do.	1 062
2	Fourth-rates do.	102
7	Fifth-rates do.	288
61	Sixth-rates do.	1,072
39	Brigs do.	312
11	Surveying-vessels do.	66
3	Royal yachts.	
24	Sloops, fitted as packets, with an aggregate of	108
22	Steam vessels of from 320 to 100 horse power.	
	Making a total of guns	4 078

Exclusive of the complement of the steam-vessels, which we have no means of estimating.

The reader may like to learn the manner in which this force is stationed to protect the interest of the country, and to aid its commerce.

There are in commission at Portsmouth, 13 vessels; at Plymouth, 16; at Sheerness, 5; at Woolwich, 3; at Chatham, 1; at Pembroke, 1; on the Irish Coast, 1; on the Scottish coast, 1; at Falmouth (packets,) 26; at Lisbon, 6; on particular service, 10; in the Mediterranean, 31; on coast of Africa, 20; in North America, 2; in South America, 18; in the West Indies, 33; in the East Indies, 14; at Australia, 3. Total 194.

If the force be deemed sufficient, we have no fault to find with its disposition; but we have reason to believe that the line of battle ships are short-handed—that their lower-deck guns are principally in England—and that their equipages are, in many instances, reduced to the frigate scale. The reader cannot fail to observe that more than two-thirds of the vessels are of the smallest size, and that they must prove utterly inefficient in any of those contests by which the destinies of nations are decided—while they would be altogether inadequate, either in their dimensions or the weight of metal they carry, to cope with similar rates in the French and American natives.—*London Atlas.*

THE ROAD IN FORMER TIMES.

(Abridged from the Doncaster Gazette.)

The reign of Elizabeth is generally cited as the period when coaches were introduced into England, and under that term *carriages* of every kind have been considered as included; but long anterior to that period, vehicles with wheels, under the denomination of chares, cars, chariots, caroches, and whirlicots were used in England. Another species of conveyance, which was long in use, especially among females of rank, and on state occasions by persons of distinction, was the horse-litter, of which mention is made at very early periods of our history. Ladies fair and gentle, Prelates Right Reverend, and Abbots jovial, all travelled in goodly array, with their households and "chappell and wardrobe stuffes," on ambling palfreys, "varey nobly drest," and well trapped mules; grave Judges of Assize, and the Learned Members of the Bar, attended by their associates and clerks, literally "rode" the circuit, oftentimes, perchance, to their own discomfiture and *sore* hindrance. In 1526, Henry Clifford, on his creation as Earl of Cumberland, rode from Skipton to London, with thirty-three servants, at an expense of 7*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.*; and Henry, the fifth Earl of Northumberland, when on a journey, appears to have been accompanied by no less than seventeen carriages, or long waggons, filled with every needful article of household furniture, and attended by thirty-six horsemen.

The communication between the metropolis and other parts of the kingdom, by means of public stage coaches, was established as early as the middle of the seventeenth century. On the 2d May, 1659, Sir Wm. Dugdale informs us, in his Diary, that he "set forwards towards London by the Conventre *coach*;" and in 1693, Mr. Edward Parker, writing to his father, at Brosholme, in Lancashire, relates the misery which he had endured in the course of a coach journey to London. "My journey," says he, "was noe ways pleasant, being forced to ride in the *boote* all the waye; ye company yt came up with mee were persons of great quality, as knights and ladyes. My journey's expense was 30s. This travel hath soe indisposed mee yt I am resolved never to ride up againe in ye coatch. I am extremely hott and feverish. What this may tend to I know not. I have not as yet advised with any doctor." The boot of the coach which this gentleman states he was forced to occupy, with so much personal inconvenience, appears to have been an uncovered projection at the sides of the vehicle, which was used for the accommodation of the persons of passengers, as well as of their luggage; and the individuals who occupied them sat with their backs to the carriage and their faces to the road side. The present construction of the state coach of the Lord Mayor of London, in which the City officers are so placed as to look out frontwise at the doors, originated when these side boots were disused.

Stowe, in his Annals, speaks of long waggons for passengers and commodities being used about the year 1565; they were afterwards called caravans, and usually carried twenty or five and twenty passengers. People of quality and gentry frequently travelled by them, taking with them their servants, plate, &c. Sir W. Dugdale, writing in his Diary, 1660, says that his daughter "went towards London by waggon." Less than a century ago, there might be seen, day after day, plodding their weary way upon a narrow causeway on most of our principal roads, strings of pack-horses, from thirty to forty in a row, bearing in huge pile, upon their backs, the bulky merchandize of the West Riding clothier and the Leeds manufacturer. The leader of these gangs was generally furnished with bells, partly by way of ornament, and partly to give warning to travellers who might be coming in the opposite direction, who usually sought some convenient spot whereon to halt until the train, with its projecting packages, had passed by, in preference to undergoing a plunge into the soft, unmade road on each side of the causeway, out of which they sometimes experienced considerable difficulty in being extricated. The partial introduction of the toll gates, however, and the consequent improvement in most of the main lines of commercial intercourse with the metropolis, gradually became the means of superseding these beasts of burden.

We may draw a curious comparison between the demand for post-horses at Doncaster in former days and the present period. In the year 1582, the Corporation, in whose hands the power of granting licences for letting animals of this description appears to have been vested, made an order at one of their meetings, that *six* post-horses should be kept in the town during the ensuing year, and that the *two men* who should keep them should be allowed the "eadish" of the great Holmes, one close at the Carr side, and one close at the Lodge; and they further directed that no other person should serve with any post-horses, unless the two men so appointed had not horses to spare, or should chance to be "abrod of posting," upon pain of certain penalties to be imposed upon transgressors by the council.

These notices of former simplicity may be amusing to us now, but the days seem fast approaching when our own rapid and highly finished style of travelling must sink into insignificance before the widely-spreading influence of that all-powerful instrument the steam engine. And there will be those who, in the course of a century hence, will peruse the accounts of our modern performances on the road, with our "fast" and "safety" carriages of every description, and the equestrian feats of modern gentry on thorough-bred horses, with a smile upon their countenances at the high notions which *their* ancestors entertained of the fancied state of perfection to which they flattered themselves they had attained.—*Nat. Gaz.*

From the Maryland Colonization Journal.

COLONIZATION AND ABOLITION.

We invite the attention of our readers to the following communications of an esteemed correspondent, who has brought an intellect, powerful in other matters of controversy, to aid the system of colonization. For strong, original and manly thought, the article below is remarkable.

Essay No. I.

The division of land into small tracts in the first establishment of civil states, seems to be necessary as a foundation of future liberty. To go no further back than the feudal system of Europe, the barbarians who overturned the Roman empire, divided the lands among the military chiefs, upon condition of their furnishing proportional means for the common defence. The cultivators of these lands became the peasantry, and this was the origin of the lordships and manors; few advances beyond this have been made up to this time, except in the large renters, who lease the land and employ poor labourers. The great landholders of Europe constitute the body of the aristocracy; there is no prospect of any change in this manner of holding the titles to the lands in any part of Europe. The wealthy tenantry seldom if ever become proprietors by mere purchases, without government promotion.

In the southern colonies of this country the division of the land was generally into large tracts, and the slave trade, by furnishing slave labour in the place of peasants, extended and perpetuated the usage: it is confirmed by the cultivation of all the staples of the south. In Texas the Spanish grants were in leagues, or 4,444 acres, these are confirmed by the present government. The foundation is thus laid for slavery or the labour of peasantry: it seems to be a law, that the first division of land into large tracts should be perpetuated. The coloured race in the slave-holding states, were they immediately emancipated, would have no title to the land, and they could not purchase it in small farms or plantations, in suitable proportions of rich and poor soils. Will the abolitionists demand an agrarian law? The citizens of the slave-holding states cannot but know that the emancipated slave cannot go into the non-slave-holding states and buy small farms. Will the abolitionists come south and teach them the northern mode of culture? Can any one doubt, who understands southern habits, that if emancipated slaves had the entire control of the lands in the south, the titles would devolve upon the few, and that the many would not rise above the peasantry of Europe.

But one of the peculiarities of the African colonization system, is its agrarian law, or division of the lands into small tracts with a fee simple title, for the benefit of the first colonists. Behold! the equality which lays the sure foundation of liberty. The first cultivators of the land will be the proprietors of the land. This division of the lands in Africa will be more secure to the colonists than it is to our citizens in our eastern, northern and western states. There will be no land speculators.

It should be borne in mind that none of the American revolutions have made any change in the land titles, and abolition can make none without extermination. Not an emancipated man will have acquired a fee simple title to a single acre of land. But every colonist who is transported to Africa, and settled there by the Colonization Society, gets from the society a legal title for his land; he sits and stands, and walks upon his own territory, and plants and builds upon it. A foundation is thus laid for freedom in colonization: a peaceful foundation which may continue while water runs and grass grows. Liberty thus planted, has its seed in itself seeding seed; thus freemen's charter to their freedom in their title to their lands, as well as in their right of suffrage, how can they be made slaves, or make slaves? Have not the colonization societies done this thing? Have they not done it for the first time on the western coast of Africa, if not on the continent itself? In all high antiquity, it appears that the right to the soil was regarded as in the sovereigns. The colonists become the sovereigns of the soil, to which their ancestors never could claim a title. What changes must there not be in men and things, before the freed people of colour, were the abolitionists to carry out their wildest schemes, could divide and subdivide the great cotton and sugar plantations of the south, and cultivate them after the manner of Pennsylvania farmers? May not the colonists say, we are not to be expatriated; we are going to inherit the land where our fathers were born, but had no inheritance. King Joe, and Jim, and Jack now sell the land to the colonization societies, and the societies give the titles to it to the colonists. Now, law for the first time makes these titles sure. The game of Indian land and Texian land is not to be acted over again in Africa. Thousands and tens of thousands of acres are not to be procured for speculation, or to form future manors or lordships. The thing being thus well begun, is half done; the colonists have where to stand—they have a fulcrum on which to rest their lever; their motto is free and equal. No treaty can be negotiated to sign away their title—each man must sign away his own right, and each man's wife too.

Political and civil liberty are easy to be begun by those who know how, but hard to be gained by the most knowing and powerful. In ages to come the people on the western coast of Africa may have cause to bless the colonization societies for setting the colonists right in the very first step. These white men will be to them as the gods of the ancient poets. But the story will not need the imagination of the poets—it will make one of the fairest pages in history. Let history point posterity to the peaceful triumphs of benevolence and of science, in the colonization of the free people of colour on the western coast of Africa, with their own consent.

Essay No. 2.

It is a maxim in morality, that when men yield to their passions, it is through ignorance, weakness, or interest. In the judgment of abolitionists, the great cause of slavery is interest. But they do not seem to suspect that the absence of this interest gives room or opportunity for the display of their zeal against slavery. Principles or elements produce effects or change results negatively, as well as positively. Ignorance and poverty are not to be regarded as the negative of knowledge and riches; merely in a state of human action, they become causes. It is never found to be safe to confide matters of knowledge to ignorance; nor riches, or matters pertaining to them, to the judgment of the poor. There is an adage, that bachelors' wives and maidens' children are well managed; so slaves in free states will all be free. The citizens of non-slave-holding states have no interests involved in the question of abolition. Do they therefore infer their incompetency to act and decide upon it? Just the reverse, and yet they would condemn the ignorant for deciding upon questions of knowledge, and the poor for deciding in cases of riches, forgetting or overlooking the fact, that sympathy or interest in all cases is necessary to the correct operations of the human judgment. Trial by jurors, or judgment by peers, is founded upon this principle. We could not trust angels to judge us, unless we were assured they were infallible.

Native Europeans, but just located in our free states, are among the most zealous abolitionists. What fellow-feelings can they possibly have with the citizens of slave-holding states? Does their disinterestedness qualify them in a peculiar manner, as exclusive judges? Practically considered, what is their disinterestedness but ignorance? They know nothing by experience; they will admit of no experiment. Nothing short of abolition will be listened to. All must be committed to one irreversible movement; not that these disinterested abolitionists anticipate no evils, or are at all deficient in theories to remedy them. They would furnish plans to meet every emergency, most gratuitously, if those already offered should happen to fail. Nothing gives greater offence to abolitionists, than the old homely question, 'what do you know about it?' The very formation of societies pre-supposes that they know all about it.

It was wisely judged by the slave-holding states, that the non-slave-holding states are not their peers; that having no interests in common, they would, to say the least, be as apt to be interested against them as for them. One of the causes of complaint against the mother government by the then colonies, was the transporting the colonists beyond the seas to be tried. Now, every abolitionist newspaper in the free states, is in effect a tribunal, before which the people in the slave-holding states are called upon to appear and to be tried, having been, of course, first prejudged.

The most disinterested men may be the most prejudiced men. Abolition societies are not philosophical societies; their object is not the discovery of the truth; but to resolve or command. They have resolved or commanded immediate abolition. Can they unresolve it or countermand it? They have resolved that it ought to be. Can they resolve that it ought not to be? To go back is to admit that they were mistaken, or had erred, and so bring their resolutions into contempt.

But it is argued, that which is morally wrong cannot be politically right; meaning that an immediate wrong ought to be immediately remedied. This may all seem very plain and very practicable to a disinterested theorist, or an immediate abolitionist, who excludes all idea of a remedy worse than a disease. Interest is among the rules which will work both ways upon the human mind, and in both ways may mislead the judgment. It would be too disparaging to tell an abolitionist that he is too good to judge correctly about the manner in which abolition should be effected, though it might be only intended as a deduction from his own position, that slavery is a moral evil. But why should not abolitionists of the immediate sort be made to account to themselves for that kind of disinterestedness, which takes on the mode of selfishness, vulgarly called 'being busy bodies in other men's matters?' Is it not quite as dangerous in political as in private matters? Who are more disinterested than universal conquerors? What country was ever invaded in which there was not some great evil to make the invasion an imperious duty? A colonization society in a slave-holding state or in a free state, to colonize the free people of colour with their own consent, is a very different subject from an immediate abolition society in a non-slave-holding state, to resolve what slave-holding states ought to do; not to advise or assist them. The very extreme of this last position ought to wake up reflection in every mind at all acquainted with the operation of the laws of the human heart, knowing the tendency of extremes to meet. The British abolitionists differed from our abolitionists, say about twenty millions pounds sterling; but our abolitionists do not differ at all from them, in dogmatism or in resolutions. No abolitionists are more resolute than ours, but none are less disposed to consult the interests of the slave-holding states. American abolitionists are not redemptionists—they offer no price to redeem this great republic from dreaded vengeance.

One word about colonization, in comparison with emancipation without expatriation. What has the latter done, and in how many years? Will colonization do no more in the same number of years? Must not these be the true points of comparison? Say emancipation has been in progress half a century. What will colonization have done in half a century, in regard to education and property? Who will have the most learning, and the most land, at the end of fifty years, the free coloured people in this country or those in Africa, that is, if the abolitionists will let the free people of colour, with their own consent, go to Africa?

From the Maryland Colonization Journal.

EDUCATION IN AFRICA.

Through the politeness of the Corresponding Secretary of the Ladies' Society for the Promotion of Education in Africa, we are permitted to make extracts from the letters of Mr. and Mrs. Alleyne, who are now teaching school at Cape Palmas, under the patronage of that institution in this city.

Letter from Mr. Benjamin Alleyne to the Corresponding Secretary of the Ladies Society.

Cape Palmas, July 8th, 1838.

I feel pleasure to inform the ladies, that myself and partner are in good health, and have prospects of enjoying the same. Agreeably to my expectations, as mentioned in my last, I opened the school under the patronage and support of the ladies, on the first of May, commencing with ten scholars; but up to date have in constant attendance from thirty to thirty-five, the major part of which are girls. A class composing ten have commenced writing, but I am obliged to instruct them on slates, for want of copy books; they all appear very desirous to learn, and are making great progress. I would thank the ladies to send me some copy books for writing, and some elementary books for the smaller children, they being most needed at present.

Among the number above mentioned, is one of the sons of the assistant-agent of the colony; he is reviewing arithmetic, grammar, and geography, also studying theoretical and practical surveying.

Mrs. Alleyne has commenced to instruct a class of girls at afternoons to use the needle; they are but few at present, but as her health improves will increase their number.

There is open to me, as a teacher, a great field for usefulness, there being no school in operation at present for the children of the colonists, but the one I superintend; was the school-room large enough, I could double the number I have at present.

In the following manner I conduct the school daily: open at 9 o'clock, A. M. with prayer and religious instructions, adapted to the minds of the children, and designed to draw answers from them; next, the first class recites words with meaning from the spelling book, and a portion of Murray's grammar; then arithmetic, which they have commenced under my tuition. The others read separately their respective lessons from Comly's spelling book, and spell in classes. Lay by at twelve o'clock; those living at a distance bring refreshment, which they take, and all come in school at one o'clock; the first class then write copies set on slates, and read in a class from the English reader; the other classes read and spell, as in the morning; school dismissed at four o'clock. In this way I proceed daily. I hope I may meet the approbation of the ladies. In addition to the week day, is a Sunday school attached, chiefly composed of adults, who are learning to read, and receive religious instruction.

I feel much interested with my employment, and am using all diligence to qualify myself better to act in so responsible a situation. In relation to the school-house that is to be built, nothing has been done since my arrival, except conveying some of the building materials to the spot on which it is to be built. We are still residing on the mission lot, in a vacant house kindly lent by Mr. Wilson. He and lady are unremitting in their kindness and attention to us.

The ladies will confer on me a great favour by advancing so much on my account as may be required by Mr. Easter, to purchase some articles I have requested him to forward by the fall expedition.

At the request of the agent of the colony, I left with him your instructions given me, for perusal; on application for them, I was told he had misplaced them. I would feel obliged for another copy. Respectfully, I conclude, praying for the success of so benevolent an object as that in which the ladies are engaged.

Subscribing myself their humble servant, &c.

Benjamin Alleyne.

Letter from Mrs. Sophia Alleyne to the Ladies' Society.

Cape Palmas, July 5th, 1838.

Respected Ladies—It was fully my intention to have written to you by the ship Emperor, which left this place about the last of April, but was prevented. Mr. Alleyne, however, wrote so fully respecting our situation and prospects, that my intended communication was not needed. It is somewhat better than two months since Mr. Alleyne commenced his school, and during that time I do not think he has been obliged to suspend his operations a day from sickness. The school now contains thirty-five children, of all ages and both sexes. I have not as yet given any assistance to him in school, as my health has not been firm, still having occasional attacks of fever; and no one to assist me in domestic affairs but a small boy. If, however, the girls increase, I hope soon, if my health improves, to have them part of the day engaged with their needles. Their parents are very anxious that they should be instructed in that necessary part of a female's education. At present two girls come, and are improving. We are still in the house of Mr. Wilson, and I really do not know when we shall move into another; and should Mr. Wilson have a reinforcement of missionaries, our prospects would indeed be dull, as the house we occupy is the only one for them. As this is the spot that my husband has selected for his home, and as I suppose we may be useful here, I am contented.

I hope, ladies, you remember us in your prayers—we need them; we have the same evil heart of unbelief, with many temptations of a new and heavy nature. You are retained in our recollections with deep interest. The little books given me by Mrs. Fisher and Miss A. Turnbull, are my daily companions—and recall those ladies forcibly to my memory.

Wishing you, respected ladies, success in your benevolent operation, with good health and happiness, I remain yours, affectionately,

Sophia Alleyne.

Colonization Herald.

TERMS—TWO DOLLARS PER ANNUM, PAYABLE IN ADVANCE.

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1838.

PENNSYLVANIA COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

The members of the Pennsylvania Colonization Society are requested to meet at this office on Thursday, the 29th instaut, at 4 o'clock, P. M. for the purpose of electing Delegates to the Annual Meeting of the American Colonization Society.

Thos. Buchanan, Cor. Secretary.

Colo. Rooms, 27 Sansom St.
Nov. 19, 1838.

COLONIZATION IN NEW ENGLAND.

The Editor of the *Christian Statesman*, as we learn from a letter in that paper of the 16th instant, writes encouragingly of the feelings in favour of colonization in New England. He says, "In New London I found a number of warm and generous friends to the Colonization Society, and received several handsome donations." "At Norwich I had the opportunity of addressing, in two instances, the citizens, and found several persons ready to contribute to the cause. A very general and ardent desire was manifested to ascertain the principles, condition and prospects of the settlements of Liberia, and of the Colonization Society." "In several of the interior towns of the state, at Lebanon, at the Willimantic village, in Windham, and at Mansfield, I enjoyed opportunities of presenting the scheme of the Society to many intelligent auditors." "The great majority of the citizens of Hartford regard it with favour, and I have no doubt both they and the people of New England generally will, at no remote day, sustain it powerfully, and with generous donations. A friend has said, New England will yet contribute $25,000 annually to the funds of the Society, and my opinion is that it is more probable she will annually give $50,000. Confidence (of slow, but sure growth in the minds of the New England population) in the practicable and benevolent policy of the institution must produce this result."

Our zealous and ever active friend Mr. Cresson, is also at present in New England, as will be seen from the subjoined article, from the *Montpelier Watchman*:

"Colonization.—During the past week, Elliot Cresson, Esq. of Philadelphia, the projector of the Bassa Cove Colony in Africa, delivered a course of lectures on the subject of colonization, occupying three evenings. The lectures were well attended, and listened to with much interest. In a future number, as we have room and leisure, we intend to notice more at length those able and interesting lectures. For ourselves, we were much interested in the lectures of Mr. Stewart, before the abolition society, and in the lectures of Mr. Cresson, on the subject of colonization. We can see no good reason for strife and debate between the two—both claim, as their object, the best good of the man of colour, at home and abroad."

We have repeatedly declared our opinion, that the people of New England wanted but information on the subject, to be induced to act energetically and perseveringly in support of colonization. Who is to blame for withholding this information, or for not taking the proper steps to promulge it, we shall not now stop to inquire. We much mistake, however, if the account of Mr. Cresson's visit shall not have confirmed our views in regard to the generous susceptibilities and clear sightedness of the Yankee nation on this subject.

Mr. George Combe, of Edinburgh, the distinguished phrenologist, has just completed a course of lectures on phrenology in Boston. It is in contemplation by his auditors to present him with a piece of plate, as a testimony of the feelings of kindness and respect entertained towards him as a philosopher and a man. Mr. Combe began his course in New York on Monday evening last. In the first week in January he will be in Philadelphia, with a similar purpose.

We do not think it requisite to record the skirmishes between the Canadian malcontents and the British troops. It is sufficient to say that the former seem determined to make up by boasting and proclamations what they so lamentably want in plan, firmness and discipline. At Napierville, where they made the greatest show of resistance, they have been completely discomfited, and a number of them were taken prisoners. We do hope that none of our citizens in these parts will be so insane as to join with men so utterly deficient in all that should inspire confidence for carrying on a systematic warfare, as are the Canadian malcontents. Of their motives and principles we do not speak at this time.

MR. BARNES'S LECTURE.

A lecture introductory to the course before the Athenian Institute and Mercantile Library Company, was delivered by the Rev. Albert Barnes on Tuesday evening the 13th. The large saloon of the Musical Fund Hall was filled on the occasion, with an attentive and a pleased audience.

Mr. Barnes preserved a happy medium in treating his subject, "The Progress and Tendency of Science;" he did not aim at startling his hearers with bold paradoxes, nor by dwelling on mere plausible common places. He referred to man ignorant, and timid because ignorant of the causes of the phenomena which he witnessed, and the play of natural agencies by which he was surrounded. An eclipse, lightning in the heavens, the rising and falling tide, would be to him matters of wonderment and indicative of change and destruction. Better informed by science, he can now anticipate to a minute the appearance of the first; and ascertaining the causes of the others, regard them without fear.

In describing the progress of science, Mr. Barnes contrasted very happily its limited possession, limited both in its extent and in the numbers having knowledge of it, in ancient times, with its diffusion at the present day. Among the ancients, science was held by a privileged few, who constituted a special aristocracy; and it was mainly exercised for the benefit of the few. Now, it is diffused among the many, who also enjoy its applications and advantages. In this respect, science is not only a minister to comfort, but is strongly promotive of civilization, and a powerful aid to the social principle. It both brings people together, and shows them how they can minister to each others pleasure and intellectual advancement when thus associated. By facilitating labour of all kinds, and substituting the work of machinery for that of man's hands, and the accompanying occupation of his mind, it leaves this last freer to engage in the loftier meditations on his own attributes and duties, and wider scope to indulge in the charities and amenities of life; in fact to realise the great purposes of his existence on earth, those which the crowd, in their eager chance after gain, seem to entirely lose sight of. In this light, science is an aid to religion—a point of view under which the lecture presented it. It was pleasant to hear a minister of the gospel, whose whole energies are devoted to the duties of his calling, advocate, as Mr. Barnes did, the nobleness and usefulness of science, and record, but to reprobate, the ignorance, and mistaken zeal by which, at different times, its professors have been persecuted and maligned, under the plea of its being adverse to religion, and its discoveries conflicting with revelation. Science, as a branch of truth, ought, he contended, to be fully and zealously pursued in all its ramifications, without any fear of detriment to morals or religion. The misapplications of smatterers and the sneers of the half learned, he rated at their true value, but, very properly, he could not see any cause of dread or of deprecation at the legitimate course of inquiry, and the discoveries and inferences of the truly scientific; some of whom, such as Newton and Locke, were as noted for their Christian faith and humbleness, as for their vast additions to the sum of human knowledge.

When speaking of the power of steam and the revolutions brought about through its agency, in facilitating labour and advancing so many arts, Mr. Barnes adverted to the recent application of it as a means of a more extended maritime intercourse, and of approximating, as it were, remote lands, subduing prejudices, national and religious, and singularly facilitating the diffusion of general and important truths, especially those of the gospel. He asked, in reference to the ascendancy which science gives to a people or a race, what would have been the result, if the Arabians, to whom we are indebted for our numeral figures and the preservation and extension of mathematical and medical knowledge, had gone a little further in their pursuit of science, and have anticipated, as they might have readily done, some of the grander discoveries of modern times? With the possession of the steam engine and its application to navigation, would they not have preserved that ascendancy which they once had in the East and extended and perpetuated it in the West? The standard of the crescent might perhaps at this very time be waving over the capitals of all Europe; as it did for a while over Spain and Hungary, and as it seemed, at any rate, almost on the point of doing over France, Italy and Germany?

On the subject of the pretended contradictions which science gave to revelation, Mr. Barnes was explicit, without being as full as some perhaps might have wished. Challenge after challenge of the infidel half-philosopher has been accepted and the futility of all the allegations of this nature clearly shown, down to the latest, but which was not referred to by the lecturer. This was a belief that the signs of the Zodiac pictured on one of the ancient temples at Denderah in Egypt gave positive proof of an antiquity of the world far beyond the Mosaic history. But short was the sceptic's triumph; for it was found, on a more careful examination, that this work was done under one of the Roman Emperors.

Even though we may construe the language of Moses, in his account of the creation of the world in such a manner as to suppose that the days therein mentioned, represented long periods of time; and thus make the observations of geology harmonise with the book of Genesis; there is no evidence, geological or otherwise, the lecturer asserted, to show that man was created earlier than the time stated in the sacred volume. However plausible the facts derived from the arrangement of the strata of which the globe consists, and the discovery of fossil remains of animals of extinct species, in strata which would seem to argue a greater age for the earth than that commonly assigned to it, yet in no instance have fossil bones of man been found in these positions. Nor is there any facts to foster the idea of any individual of the human species having the remote antiquity assigned by modern geologist to the earth and certain animals first inhabiting it.

The opinion advanced by the lecturer, that science is progressive, and that no discovery or valuable addition to the sum of knowledge has ever been lost, though true in the main, can hardly be received without some not unimportant modifications. The observations made within the last forty years on the science and arts of ancient Egypt, and which have of late been conspicuously brought forward by Wilkinson, show that very many mechanical contrivances believed to be of modern origin, were known to, and used by the people of that country. Glass which was supposed, for a long time, to be a modern invention, was known in Egypt and Phœnicia; but yet a knowledge of its composition and manufacture was lost for ages. To this day, we are ignorant of the art of making stucco work and other varieties of plastering so that it shall acquire that hardness equal to stone itself, as seen in several of the ancient buildings of Rome. In the art of fixing colours in plaster and stone, we are yet confessedly in-

erior to the Egyptians of three thousand years ago. Coming down from the first grand period of antiquity, in which the arts flourished in Egypt, Chaldea and Phœnicia, to the second period, or that of imperial Rome, we learn by a reference to the museum at Portici, near Naples, consisting of articles taken from Pompeii and Herculenæum, that very many instruments and apparatus, for scientific purposes and domestic economy used by us now, and supposed to be of recent invention, were known to the Romans and the inhabitants of Magna Græcia. It is very true, as the lecturer remarked, that whatever writings in literature and science was most valuable and most esteemed, were copied largely and retained in many hands who would be interested for their preservation. Hence the burning of the Alexandrian library was not attended with that serious loss to knowledge which it has been the fashion to consider it. Its intrinsic worth was not by any means commensurate with its size. So likewise, of the numerous manuscripts found in Herculaneum, and which have been unrolled, very few were on matters more important than rhetoric and cookery.

The impression left on our mind by the lecture of Mr. Barnes was, that the ends both of religion and of science would be better obtained by a free interchange of knowledge and opinions between ministers of the gospel and men of science. There is, we will not say a general, but certainly a too common mistrust of each other by these two parties—the former seem too apt to regard the latter as infidels, or as engaged in studies which tend to infidelity; whilst men of science, aware of its neglect by so many ministers and religious persons, are too prone to regard religion itself as adverse to liberal inquiry and the advancement of knowledge. There is bigotry and intolerance on both sides, which might be and ought to be prevented by men, who more particularly represent the views and interests of each, meeting on a common ground—the one exhibiting the wonders of creation—the other admitting and applying a knowledge of these wonders to advance our love and thankfulness to the Creator and Dispenser of them all. At present, there is prejudice on both sides, growing out of mutual ignorance of the observations and inferences respectively of each other. We cannot but regard the lecture of Mr. Barnes as an evidence, and at the same time a means, of a better and more harmonious state of things—an union between the observers of the natural laws and the expounders of the revealed laws of the Deity.

Our readers will see that the poet's corner has been again filled with a contribution to the Herald, from Mrs. Sigourney. Were we sufficiently gifted to indulge in strains similar to her own, we would enlarge more on the favour thus conferred.

MORMON WAR.

We have fresh accounts of the Missouri Mormon war, that present a disastrous state of affairs. It would seem that the attempt of a large body of Mormons to settle far west in Missouri, in the counties of Daviess and Livingston, has been resisted by the previous settlers of the vicinity, and the contest has come to the battle field.

In the week commencing October 14, the Mormons burned the town of Millport, and many houses in its vicinity. They had organized into a band of three or four hundred, and proclaimed their determination to maintain their position by force. On the morning of October 25, they attacked a force of fifty men, under Captain Bryant, sent to quell them. This company they dispersed, killing, wounding, and capturing the greater number. There were strong reports that they intended to burn Lexington that night. Lexington is a considerable town.

The facts appear to be, that the Mormons have become an organized banditti that burn, and rob, and shed blood where they are opposed. The language held towards them is to this effect:

"They (a public force) must make haste and put a stop to the devastation which is menaced by these infuriated fanatics. And they must go prepared, and with the full determination to exterminate or expel them from the state en masse. Nothing but this can give tranquillity to the public mind, and re-establish the supremacy of the law. There need be no further dallying with the question any where. The Mormons must leave the state, or we will, one and all. And to this complexion it must come at last."

We are too far from the scenes of action to venture an opinion. Wherever the fault rests, the condition of the parties is most deplorable.—*Cin. Gazette.*

Colonization Meeting at New York.—The friends of Colonization held a meeting on Wednesday evening at the Broadway Tabernacle—Rev. Dr. Milnor presided.

The meeting was opened by Rev. Spencer Cone, by reading the 60th chapter of Isaiah—after which the Rev. Dr. Dewitt made a prayer.

The Rev. John Seys, Missionary to Africa addressed the meeting, and offered the following resolution.

"*Resolved*, That it is our opinion that a ship sent to Africa, manned and navigated by coloured men, would tend to elevate the coloured man, and give additional confidence to the friends of benevolence."

Addresses were also delivered by Judge Wilkinson and Col. Stone—after which the resolution was adopted and a collection made to further the object contemplated.—*Christian Intelligencer.*

Abolitionists.—The class of people bearing this title are following the footsteps of the Anti-Masons, and forming a political party. Their cry now is, "To the polls! to the polls!" Well, this is what we always expected. The party is made up of silly women, fanatical men, and broken down or upstart politicians, combined with some men of character, who have not courage enough to resist a popular clamor. When their career first commenced, it began its appeals in two very opposite ways. Demagogues told the people that the influence of the South in our National Legislature was too great, and must be destroyed. On the other hand, religious fanatics told the people that the world could never be evangelized until American institutions were remodeled; and thus they went to work. This was their course many years ago. Nor have they ever materially wandered from their course. They have published the most flagitious falsehoods all over the land, in every direction. One of these, the Narrative of Williams, a lying black man, they circulated by the thousand. Of late they have officially and publicly confessed that it was a tissue of falsehood. We wish their consciences would do a similar work of justice respecting almost every thing they have ever said. Nearly every statement they have ever published, which has met our eyes or ears, is no less a vile slander. Being now fairly before the world as a political party, those who love the union of these sovereign States cannot mistake the course which patriotism and sound wisdom dictate.—*Watchman of the South.*

Practical Abolition.—Edward Curd, senior, recently deceased, of Logan county, Ky., by his will emancipated 15 slaves; two of them unconditionally, and the others on the condition that they emigrated to Liberia, and remained there. He left them $50 each to defray their expenses to that country. They have determined to go.

The Anti-Masonic Convention adjourned over from yesterday till this morning, owing to the absence of some delegates, when it was organised and proceeded to business. The following states were represented: Pennsylvania, Ohio, New York, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts. Harmer Denny, of Pennsylvania, was chosen President; Henry Cotheal, of New York, Ebenezer Clough, of Massachusetts, Rufus Beach, of Ohio, and Edward S. Williams, of Rhode Island, Vice Presidents; and John Williamson, of Pennsylvania, and J. A. Simpson, of New Jersey, Secretaries. The following committees were appointed:

On Address: Messrs. Stevens, of Pennsylvania; Beach, of Ohio; Cotheal, of New York; Ross, of Pennsylvania; and Simpson, of New Jersey.

On Resolutions: Messrs. Cooper, of Pennsylvania; Williams, of New Jersey; Watts, of Pennsylvania; and Clough, of Massachusetts.

On Finance: Messrs. Graham, Markle and Howard.

The Committee of Correspondence not yet named.

On motion of Thaddeus Stevens, William Henry Harrison of Ohio, was unanimously nominated a candidate for the next President of the United States, and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts, unanimously nominated a candidate for Vice President. Mr. Beach then made some remarks which were received with applause; and on motion of Mr. Stevens, the Convention adjourned over till three o'clock this afternoon, when the reports of committees will probably be submitted. The sittings are held in the saloon of the Temperance Hall, north Third street.—*Nat. Gaz. Nov.* 14.

THE EXPLORING EXPEDITION.

U. S. Ship Peacock,
Madeira, Sept. 20, 1838.

Dear Sir,—According to my purpose, I avail myself of this opportunity of writing by a brig bound to New York. We have had a passage of 23 days from Norfolk to this place. In a gale of wind parted company with the Commodore, and the Vincennes arrived one day before us. The Vincennes, Peacock, brig Porpoise, the schooner Independence, and Sea Gull are all here. All things as yet progress very well. The Peacock is a wet ship, but a good sea boat. We shall, when we arrive at Rio, (which we expect to sail for about the 24th September,) require much repairs, and will be detained some time, when you may expect to hear from me again. Officers and men are all well and in good spirits. Mr. Peale, belonging to the scientific corps, is on board of our ship. I think from all appearances that we shall be able to do something before we return. You may expect to see us about 3 years from this.

Summary.

Advices from Havana to the 28th ultimo state that, at a Government Junto, held on the 22d, for devising the most adequate means for obviating the difficulties encountered in the raising of the subsidy extraordinary, it was decided that the property of the *religious* orders should be levied on to the amount of two millions; the reimbursement of which was guarantied by the revenue from the public tax, and, in case of deficiency, to be made up from the royal coffers.

Naval.—The United States frigate United States, Jesse Wilkinson, Esq., commander, arrived at Boston on Thursday, from the Mediterranean station, having left Port Mahon September 23, and Gibraltar on the 8th ult.

Printer obtained.—A printer has been engaged for the Liberia mission, who will accompany brother Seys on his return, probably about the 1st of December next. No more, therefore, need apply for this station.
[*Christian Advocate.*

Georgia.—The Legislature of this State assembled at Milledgeville on the 5th instant. In the Senate, Charles Dougherty, (State Rights) was elected Speaker by a majority of 5 or 6 votes. John T. Lamar (Adm.) was chosen Secretary by a majority of one or two votes.

In the House of Representatives, Mr. Day (Adm.) was chosen Speaker by a majority of two votes.

On joint ballot, the Administration papers say that there will be found a Van Buren majority.

Gale on Lake Erie.—The heavy gale which blew during Monday night, caused an unprecedented amount of damage to our lake craft. A number of heavily laden vessels were out, thirteen of which were beached, between Grand River and Erie, so far as we have information.—*Buffalo Commercial Advertizer.*

Major General Scott, is, as we hear, again ordered to the northern frontier.

Breach in the Canal.—The Wilkesbarre Advocate says—"We learn this morning from Capt. Wilt, of the Susquehanna Packet Line, that a serious breach has occurred in the canal near the Catawissa bridge, on this side. There is a large amount of merchandize yet to come to the northern part of the state, and we hope the supervisor will make every exertion, and spare no expense, consistent with the case, to mend the breach at the earliest possible time."

We understand Major General Macomb returned some days ago to the Seat of Government from the Northern Frontier, and has resumed his station in the War Office.—*Nat. Intelligencer.*

Christopher Hughes, Esq. Chargé d'Affaires of the United States to Sweden, now on a visit to his native country, is at present in this city, where he arrived a day or two ago.—*Nat. Intelligencer.*

Wheeling, Nov. 10.

The River.—The river has risen to a good navigable stage, and our wharf again presents a business-like appearance. We observed at the wharf yesterday, the Arabia, for St. Louis. The Robert Emmett, and Embassy, the Girard, and the Reliance, all for the same port this day. They were taking in freight very fast during the whole of yesterday.

In connexion with the rise in the river, we hear that the creeks in this region are again sufficiently high to set the mills running. This is glorious news, and will be the means soon of bringing large supplies of flour into market, which has, by the bye, become scarce and high.

Fare for passage to Louisville appears to be fixed at $15 for the present, to St. Louis $30.—*Times.*

FOREIGN NEWS.

The Great Western steam packet arrived at New York on Thursday afternoon. She left Bristol on the 27th ultimo, having one hundred and fourteen passengers. Her outward passage was performed in twelve and a half days. By this arrival we have British papers to the 27th inclusive, from which are subjoined a number of extracts.

The steamship Liverpool, with fifty-one passengers, which sailed from Liverpool at her appointed time, Oct. 20th, had not yet arrived. The New York American suggests the probability of her having put into Nova Scotia for fuel, which seems likely as she was seen on the 21st with her engine stopped and blowing off steam. Among the rumors abroad is one that Lord John Russell will permit the vote by ballot to be introduced into the coming Parliament as a cabinet question. And another report was that a short extra session of Parliament would be held in consequence of Lord Durham's resignation.

The steamer Liverpool sailed from Liverpool at one o'clock, P. M., on the 20th of October. Every berth was full, and among the passengers, it was stated, was Lord Lennox, with despatches relative to Lord Durham's resignation. The weather being beautifully fine, thousands of spectators crowded the pier heads. Salutes were fired and replied to, and she rounded the Rock Fort at 20 minutes past 1 o'clock. On board the Liverpool there were fifty-one passengers (exclusive of servants and children.)

The Liverpool had on board about 150 tons of dry goods, for which the sum of £5 5s. per ton was paid, 469 tons of coal, and 94 tons of Mr. William's turf stone, or compressed fuel. Her consumption of coal was estimated at 26 cwt. for every ten miles; and, calculating upon a fair average passage, she will have a surplus of 147 tons of coal on reaching New York. She was expected to arrive at New York about the 5th of Nov. and to be back about the end of the month. Her next voyage to New York is fixed for the 1st of January, 1839.

The Liverpool was seen on the 21st instant, at 8 A. M., with her engine stopped and blowing off her steam. She was afterwards seen at 11 A. M., Tuskar bearing N. N. W., distant about nine miles, going between nine and ten knots an hour, against a strong head wind and sea—all well.

The Great Western made her passage from New York city to Bristol in twelve days and nine hours.

We are glad to hear that through the perseverance of the President of the Chamber of Commerce, who has been to London on the subject, the fees charged at the Custom House on the clearance of steam vessels for over time are now got rid of.—*Bristol Paper.*

Canadian Affairs.—Despatches have been sent off from the colonial office. A deputation of the merchants connected with the commerce of the Canadas waited upon Lord Glenelg, in consequence of the uneasiness which prevailed. The result of that interview has not exactly transpired; but the deputation it is said were assured that every means would be taken to ensure the integrity of the Canadas, and the interests of those connected with their commerce: it was also intimated that, should the Earl of Durham maintain his late determination, it was the intention to send out *another nobleman of political eminence.*

Earl Spencer is mentioned as Lord Durham's successor.

Bank of England.—Quarterly Average of the Weekly Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of England, from the 24th of July to the 16th of October, 1838:

Liabilities.	£	Assets.	£
Circulation,	19,359,000	Securities,	22,015,000
Deposits,	9,327,000	Bullion,	9,437,000
	£28,586,000		£31,452,000

Downing street, Oct. 19, 1838.

The Navy.—The Hampshire Telegraph of Oct. 22, says—The greatest despatch is manifested in the equipment of the Ganges, 84, at Portsmouth; all the disposable artificers are at work on her, and she will be ready for commission in about a week. The Thunderer, 84, is likewise preparing at Plymouth; and the Cambridge, 80, at Chatham. The Vernon, 50, at Sheerness, is also ordered for commission. The Indus, a new teak built 80 gun ship, will be ready for launching before the end of this month. The new corvette Daphne, to mount eighteen guns, will be ready for the pendant in about a fortnight. The Warspite, 74, now in dock, is ordered to be cut down to a 60 gun frigate.

The London Courier says—There is a very strong and general impression in the commercial circles that the French blockade of Mexico is about to be brought to a close. Mr. Pakenham, the British Chargé d'Affaires, is about to return to Mexico, and it is understood that the blockade is not to last very long after his arrival there.

The Northern Yatch, which sailed from Shields lately, on her passage to Leith, having a crew of 13 persons, and from 8 to 10 passengers (one of whom she landed at North Sunderland,) was seen to pass through the Fern Islands between four and five o'clock on Thursday afternoon. The captain of a brig lying in the Tyne, it is said, saw her go down a short distance from North Sunderland, and within a few yards of a Scotch smack. All on board are supposed to have perished.

On Thursday se'nnight, the first iron ship built in Liverpool, was launched from the yard of Messrs. Jackson, Gordon & Co., near the Potteries. She has somewhat of the American build about her bows, a great breadth of beam, and a fine run. With the exception of her decks, she is entirely built of iron. She is 271 tons old measurement, 27 feet 6 inches breadth of beam, 13 feet 10 inches depth of hold, and 96 feet keel, and has 99 feet 9 inches for tonnage. All being ready, at eleven o'clock, the beautiful vessel with all her masts and rigging glided majestically into the river. She was christened the "Ironsides" by Capt. Mitchell, formerly of the ship "Abbotsford," who is to sail her. It is understood she is for the Brazil trade. When in the water she floated like a cork, and her masts were as stiff and as steady as possible.

The Hague.—The Utretcht Courant has the following paragraph, dated October 21: "Louis Bonaparte and his suite arrived here yesterday in two carriages, and only stopping to change horses, continued his journey to Rotterdam where he arrived on the same evening at the Hotel des Pays Bas, to embark for England."

Letters from Posen of the 10th inst. state that all the accounts received from Poland and the interior of Russia speak of the gigantic military preparations now making in the southern province of the empire. It was evident that these troops could not be intended for Circassia, as the nature of the country does not admit of the display of large masses, and that they must of course have another destination. It was reported that the Emperor would review the army in person towards the latter end of October.

Falmouth, Oct. 16.—Her Majesty's packet Star, Capt. Smith, arrived to-day from Mexico. Sailed from Vera Cruz, Aug. 27th; Tampico, Sept. 2d; Havana, Sept. 16th. On freight, 630,000 dollars, 500 ceroons of cochineal.

Narrow Escape of the Royal Tar Steamer in the Bay of Biscay.—It appears that the Royal Tar underwent some trifling repairs last voyage at Lime house, and left the river on Friday, 12th inst., for Lisbon and Gibraltar. On reaching the Bay of Biscay she met a heavy sea and stiffish breeze, which strained her to that degree that she was half full of water before the captain and crew were aware of it. If there had not been six pumps to go to work with she must have gone down. There were sixty-five passengers on board; and when it was reported that the ship was sinking, the scene of dismay and uproar that ensued baffles description. The passengers have landed at Falmouth, there to await the arrival of another steamer.

American Stocks.—London, Oct. 23, Noon.—The American securities have not improved in value since our last quotations. The following are the prices of the day, with a very limited business:

Five per cent. pound sterling Alabama, 93 to 94; five per cent Alabama, 83 to 84; five per cent Indiana, 83½ to 84½; five per cent Lousiana (Baring's) 95 to 96; five per cent Louisiana (Lizardi's) 96 to 96½; six per cent Mississippi, 93 to 94; six per cent Ohio, 1856, 100½ to 101½; five per cent New York, 91 to 95; five per cent Pennsylvania, according to dates 92 to 96; United States Bank shares 24*l.* 17s. 6d; five per cent New York city 90½ to 91½; six per cent Virginia, 95 to 96; six per cent New Jersey rail road, 102 to 104; six per cent Illinois, 83½ to 84½; five per cent South Carolina in £ sterling, 95.

State of Trade.—The increased inactivity the cotton market at Liverpool has produced some effect here. There was more demand for yarn yesterday than for several weeks past, and higher prices were generally asked by the spinners. The demand for cloth continues good; and several kinds, particularly 27 inch printing cloths, command rather better prices.
[*Manchester Guardian.*

Trade to day has been almost in a state of complete stagnation, only a single buyer being present, who was but very little disposed to do any thing. The yarn market is wretched, and without any prospect of improvement.—*Blackburn Standard.*

FRANCE.

Paris, Bourse, Oct. 24.—Half past 3 o'clock, P. M.—Last Prices.—Five per cents, 100f. 45c; three per cents., 81f. 10c., Bank Actions, 2,630fr.

Accounts received from various departments of France state that a reduction in the price of corn had already taken place, and that the late rise had been occasioned by speculation, and not by a deficiency in the crops.

There is little respecting the Swiss question in the journals before us. We find in them, however, and in our private letters from Coblentz and Dusseldorf, that the journey of Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte towards the coast had been marked by a general expression of sympathy and respect in the country that he traversed.

Our Paris letters state, "on authority," that nothing had been concluded on the Hollando-Belgic affair, and that it seemed likely to continue in the unsatisfactory and unsettled state in which it has remained during eight years.

The most active exertions are making at Toulon for fitting out several vessels for Mexico. The ship Diademe and the corvettes Tara and Egerie, are to take 1900 men on board for an unknown destination.

The Commerce publishes a letter from St. Petersburgh, dated the 7th October, which states the impression was daily receiving corroboration from the measures of the Russian Government, that war would take place between England and Russia.

The Augsburg Gazette publishes a letter, dated Frontiers of Italy, 8th inst., which asserts that the question of the occupation of Ancona had been agitated in Venice, and the Austrian government had offered to withdraw its troops from the Roman States, on condition that the French evacuate Ancona. The Augsburg Gazette makes no doubt of King Louis Philippe's acceding to the proposition.

SPAIN.

Defeat of Gen. Pardinas.—The division of the Queen's troops under command of Gen. Pardinas, experienced a disastrous defeat at Mealla, on the 1st of October. The Carlist General, Cabrera, it appears, had united his forces with those of Llangostera and Forcadell, and made a forced march of twenty-six hours to surprise General Pardinas at Mealla. The latter, whether through temerity or ignorance of the actual force of Cabrera, accepted the battle, and bravely led his troops to the attack. The Carlist cavalry having impetuously charged one of his batallions, and thrown it into disorder, Pardinas succeeded in stopping the fugitives, and, placing himself at the head of two companies of Chasseurs, drove back the enemy as far as its positions, but the rest of his division not supporting his movement, the column was assailed by a terrible fire, and General Pardinas received two bullet wounds in the breast and another in the head. The Christino cavalry again charged to rescue the General, who had fallen into the hands of the Carlists, but being opposed by the whole of Cabrera's infantry and cavalry, it was obliged to give way, and the rout shortly afterwards became complete. The division of General Pardinas was the only force which protected that part of Lower Arragon, now entirely at the mercy of the Carlists.

From the official accounts transmitted to the War-office by the authorities of Caspe, it appears that the loss of the Queen's army in this engagement had exceeded three thousand men; that fifteen hundred only had saved their arms and baggage.

The news of this reached Madrid on the 5th, and excited great consternation as well as indignation against the ministry, to whom the misfortune was generally attributed.

London, Oct. 26.—Madrid papers and private letters of the 17th inst. have arrived by the usual express.

The Queen Regent had reviewed on that day the troops of the division of General Narvaez, and which were remarkable for their fine appearance and discipline. Their ulterior destination was not yet known.

The Minister of the Interior had tendered the resignation of his office.

General Van Halen marched on the 13th for Daroca, with seven battalions of infantry and a few squadrons of cavalry. Cabrera had returned to the defiles of Maestrazgo, whence it would be extremely difficult to dislodge him. Arrests continued in Saragossa. On the 14th twenty-five additional reputed Carlists had been thrown into prison.

Bayonne letters of the 20th inst., state, that it was only on the 18th that the arrival of the Princess of Beira and of the Prince of the Austrias on the Spanish territory was known at Eliorrio. Don Carlos was to go to meet them as far as Toloso. On that day General Maroto had his head-quarters at Morentin, and his army occupied the valley of La Solana. Gen. Garcia had detached 400 men to reinforce the 5th battalion of Navarre, which was stationed along the frontier to watch Muniagorri's movements. General Espartero remained at Logrono.

AFFAIRS OF THE EAST.

Dates from Constantinople are to the 3d ult. Colonel Wilbraham, it appears, arrived in that city on the first, with despatches from Mr. M'Neil, the British Ambassador in Persia. "British influence," according to the intelligence received, had suddenly gained the ascendant in Persia, and had induced the Schah to promise to accept the *ultimatum* presented to him by Col. Stoddard, and forthwith to raise the siege of Herat. All apprehension of a rupture between Great Britain and Persia had subsided.

The best understanding is said to prevail between the commanders, officers, and seamen, of the united British and Turkish squadrons, but it would appear that the French admiral did not regard this harmony with a confiding friendly eye, as he kept a cutter constantly off Tenedos in observation of their movements.

Constantinople, Sept. 28.—I wrote by the Vienna post of yesterday to inform you of the arrival of the British and Ottoman fleets, under the orders of Sir R. Stopford, off the entrance of the Dardanelles, and to convey to you by the first opportunity the important intelligence of a person having arrived here from Alexandria to pay the arrears of Mehemet Ali's tribute to the Porte. The paper on Europe of which he is the bearer is to the amount of 920,700 dollars, and not, as I had erroneously stated 1,700,000.

London, Oct. 20.—The Courrier Francais, after stating that the neglected treaty of commerce between Great Britain and Austria had been concluded, observes that England had rescued the Porte from the protectorate of the Czar by drawing closer the commercial ties which bound the Ottoman empire to the powers of the West, and that the treaty with Austria was the completion of the series of negociations with that object. "We are ignorant of the details of this treaty," says the Courrier Francais, "but a commercial alliance between England and Austria would be without object, if it did not contemplate, before all things, the free navigation of the Danube and the Black Sea. The English wish, no doubt, to throw obstacles in the way of the establishment which the Russians are forming at the mouth of the Danube, on the island of Sulina. This could be done efficaciously, however, only by the alliance and concurrence of Austria. This treaty is the first step of the Austrian Cabinet towards emancipating itself from the species of tutelage in which Russia holds her allies of Vienna and Berlin."

St. Petersburgh, Oct. 7.—The probability of a war between Russia and England appears to increase daily. A courier from Teflis has just arrived with the following intelligence:—

"Lieut. General Golowine, commander of the army of the Caucasus, has received from Gen. Perowski, Governor of the Khanat of Erivan, official notice of the departure of the British troops from Akouchyse, and of their entrance into Schiraz, re-inforced by a number of individuals, who had revolted against the reigning Schah. There prevails at present in Persia a panic much greater than that which seized the country in 1835, on the accesion to the throne of Mohammed Schah. General Perowski has marched troops to the Araxes, in the direction of Bakou, in order to re-assure the Schah, by showing him that Russia was ready to assist him in case the English should invade his dominions. General Golowine has sent a re-inforcement of 5,000 men to the corps of the army of Armenia, and has called for precise instructions to direct his future conduct. The Government waits the arrival of the Emperor to forward orders to that general.

"On the other hand, we are informed that Count Potoski, the Russian Ambassador in Sweden, has opened negotiations with the Government of that country, having for their object to insure the co-operation of the Swedish fleet with that of Russia, in the event of a war or a hostile demonstration against England.

"Our Government intends sending into Armenia several regiments, composed of men natives of northern Russia. It was at first contemplated to employ in that country corps of Cossacks and regiments consisting of Poles and Russians, but there is a disinclination to trust the latter, among whom much discontent has of late prevailed. If England wished to avail herself of the delay that will intervene before the arrival of those Russian regiments in Armenia, which cannot take place for three or four months, on account of the distance between the latter and Central Russia, she might create considerable embarrassment for the Cabinet of St. Petersburgh by marching troops towards the Araxes, and raising the cry of 'Liberty' among the natives of the Caucasus and Georgia, and among the Russian forces themselves. The Czar is more in dread of such an event than of all Lord Palmerston's diplomatical notes. The Cabinet of the Tuilleries inspires no fear to M. Nesselrode, who loudly boasts of being able to lead it as he pleases."

BRITISH STATISTICS.

"Thames Tunnel.—Capital of the company expended, 180,000*l.*; amount of advances made by the treasury to 2d November, 1837, 83,900*l.*; total expenditure, 263,900*l.* Estimate, by Mr. Walker, of cost for completing the Tunnel, 150,000*l.*, and for the other works remaining to be done and purchased, 200,000*l.*; total sum required, exclusive of contingencies, 350,000*l.*

"Armouries, Tower.—Number of persons admitted to see the armouries in 1837, 14,523; of whom 10,408 paid 2*s.* each. In the four weeks ending March 28, 1838, when the fee was reduced to 1*s.*, the admissions were 4,528, of whom 4,196 paid.

"Marriages.—Number of places in England and Wales, licensed for the celebration of marriage under the provisions of 6 and 7 Will. IV. cap. 85, 1136; number of certificates for marriage, granted under the same act, during the six months, from July to December 1837, 2,343; number of marriages celebrated other than according to the rites of the established church during the same period, 1,745; of which 453 were in the superintendent registrar's office, and 1,292 in registered places of worship, or between Quakers or Jews; 220 were by license, and 1,525 on production of a certificate. Numbers celebrated according to the rites of the established church within the bills of mortality in the same period, 6,032, of which 5,108 were after bans, and 911 by license.

"Merchant Seamen.—Registered seamen serving in British vessels on June 9, 1838, 156,872; apprenticed seamen serving at the same date, 21,107.

"Beer Houses.—Licenses taken out in 1835, 39,654; in 1837, 45,394; increase 14½ per cent.

"Consumption of Spirits.—Quantities of British and foreign spirits paid duty in the united kingdom, in 1836, 31,402,418 gallons; in 1837, 28,943,103; decrease 7.8 per cent.

"Consumption of Wine.—Quantities retained for consumption in the united kingdom, in 1836, 6,809,212 gallons; in 1837, 6,391,560; decrease 6.1 per cent.

"Newspapers.—Number in the year (ending September 15) 1836, 397; in 1837, 458; stamps issued in the first period, 35,576,056; in the second, 53,496,207; increase 50 per cent.

"Thames Passengers.—Number who landed or embarked at Hungerford Wharf, in 1834, 30,985; in 1835, 142,139; in 1836, 225,974; and in the half year ending July 11, 1837, 174,563.

"Savings' Banks.—Number of depositors, including charitable institutions and friendly societies, on November 20, 1836, 597,959; on same date, in 1837, 635,440; increase 6.2 per cent; amount of deposits, in 1836, 18,761,219*l.*; in 1832, 19,599,873*l.*; increase 4.4 per cent.

"Exports from the United Kingdom.—Total declared value, in 1836, 53,368,572*l.*; in 1837, 42,214,938*l.*; decrease, 11,153,634*l.*=29 per cent.

"Fourpenny Pieces.—Number issued from first coinage on March 14, 1836, to March 31, 1838, 5,359,500; value 89,325*l.*"

DISEASES IN LONDON.

A century ago, it is said, one-fifth of the inhabitants of London died from consumption annually; that proportion has not at all diminished. In 1740, more than one-fourth of the children that died at a tender age, died from convulsions; that proportion, however, is limited to one-eleventh. Fevers that used formerly to rage in London, taking off one-fifth of the total deaths per annum, have been reduced to one-twenty-first or one twenty-eighth. But inflammations which were not generally known, have dreadfully increased, in consequence of the addiction to ardent spirits, which carries off one-tenth of those who die. The smallpox, which at one period killed one-tenth of the children, has been reduced to more than one-twenty-fifth. Before the admirable discovery of Dr. Jenner, and the introduction of vaccination, the deaths from the scourge were annually 19,000, or 95 in 1000; but since the establishment of a National Vaccine Hospital, by a vote of the House of Commons in 1829, and the exertions of that great man, there were 23,532 children annually vaccinated there, besides more than one-third that are privately vaccinated at home. Previously to the introduction of this into England, the deaths were, from 1750 to 1799, 100,922, or 2018 per annum in London alone, besides the dreadful ravages in the country. It is now generally introduced all over Europe, Asia, Africa and America. Violent deaths have of late years greatly increased in London: there are at least 400 per annum. It appears that from 1680 to 1699 there were 236 suicides committed in London—from 1720 to 1740, during the reigns of George I. and II., 484—and from 1820 to 1829, 381. It has been remarked that there are three men to one woman who commit suicide, and that the greater number took place during the months of June and July, and the least between August and November, notwithstanding the opinion to the contrary.

Prisoners in the Fleet.—From a return just made to an order of the House of Commons it appears that the number of persons in custody in the Fleet Prison on the 11th of February, 1830, for contempt, under process issuing from the Chancery and Exchequer Courts, was 25; of whom have died three, been discharged twenty, and still remain in custody two. From the 11th of February, 1830, to the 25th of July, 1838, there have beem committed 254; of whom 11 have died, 215 have been discharged, and 28 now remain in custody; making a total of 30 persons at present in the Fleet for contempt. A note is added, stating that many of these are in contempt for non payment of money and for costs, who might have sought, and still have the opportunity of seeking, their liberation under the Insolvent Act.

Fires in London in 1838.—More conflagrations have occurred in the metropolis and its precincts this year than in any other on record. The following is taken from the reports in the possession of the London Fire Establishment. In the year 1836, 654 fires took place; in 1837, 716; and in the present year—January, 84; February, 65; March, 65; April 52; May, 57; June, 60; July, 48; and in August, 37; amount in the whole, 468. In February and March nine persons fell victims to the flames.

Poetry.

For the Colonization Herald.

"LOVE NOT THE WORLD."

To gain the friendship of the world,
How vain the ceaseless strife,
We sow the sand, we grasp the wind,
We waste the life of life.

Perchance, some giddy height we gain,
Some gilded treasure show,
The footing fails,—the shadow 'scapes,
We sink in deeper wo,

Yet baffled, still the toil resume,
The eager chase renew,
Even tho' the portals of the tomb
Yawn on our startled view.

But Thou, whose pitying mercy's tide
Is like the unfathom'd sea,
Thy love stands waiting for the souls
That will not turn to Thee,

Thy hand is stretch'd, thy voice is heard,
Thy fold is open wide,
Ah! who their straying sheep can save
That shun the Eternal Guide.

L. H. S.

DR. HUMPHREY'S THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION.

Family Government.

It has always been a question, how early children become the proper subjects of parental training, and whether they should be subjected to any kind of authority or restraint, before they are capable of being influenced as moral and accountable agents. That during the first few days of its life, an infant can no more be brought under government, than any of the lower animals, I suppose all will agree; and the decided opinion of some, perhaps of the majority, is, that nothing like discipline should be attempted, till the child is old enough to understand the reason of it. To this opinion, after some experience and the maturest reflection, I cannot subscribe. I regard the question merely as a question of *fact*, and not as involving the accountable agency of the child at all. How early *can* you begin to check its peevishness, and mould its temper to your wishes? If you can safely and with any advantage begin, when the infant is three months or six months old, it is a point of no importance with me, how low it is found on the scale of moral agency. As God has nowhere told me, that I must wait till my child can reason and feel itself to blame for crying and showing a bad temper, before I attempt to lay it under any restraint, I consider myself authorized, nay bound, to take it in hand, just as soon as I can bend the twig in a right direction.

Without, therefore, pretending to fix upon the earliest week, or month, I do not hesitate to give it as my opinion, that considerable progress may be made under *six* months, if not under *four;* and that parental authority ought to be well established within the first year and a quarter. It has been done a thousand times, and why should it not be, a thousand more? The best governed children, and will you pardon me if I add, the only well governed children, are those who are brought into complete subjection in the nursery; and most of them at so early a day, that they cannot remember when, half choked by their stubborn wills, they first lisped out, "*I won't*," to try the great question of mastery with their mothers, and were conquered. One thing every body must admit—children are capable of showing, plainly enough, to what race they belong, at a very tender age. It is astonishing to see how early the spirited little fellow will stiffen its body, and throw back its head, and kick and strike, and put forth other demonstrations of its high displeasure: and who can doubt, that when these signs of depravity appear, it is time for the parent to enter on a course of counteraction and repression?

Every nurse must have observed that infants begin to form habits, troublesome or otherwise, almost as soon as they begin to breathe. Lay them quietly down at first, and they will soon become accustomed to it, so as to relieve you of a great deal of care. Rock them to sleep a few times, and you must do it always. Carry them about the room for a single day in your arms, when they are uneasy, and they will find you exercise enough for the rest of the year. Now why should you not take advantage of this extreme ductility, to mould them into all good habits, including the most important of all, a cheerful submission to your authority? As it is easy to accustom children, before they are a year old, to go to bed alone in the dark, and exceedingly delightful to hear them cooing and talking themselves to sleep, so may they unquestionably be brought to yield implicitly to the look and the voice of a parent, at the tenderest age; and when the habit is thus early formed, it saves infinite trouble to both.

Waiving entirely, for the present, the question whether the rod is ever to be used in the administration of family government, I remark in the first place, that *this government should be uniform.*

This is a point in which a great many worthy heads of families show their almost utter want of tact and good judgment; and failing here, they succeed but poorly in any of their efforts to establish and maintain the authority which God has made it their duty to exercise over their own household. There is no reason to doubt, that parents of this class love their children as tenderly as any other class; and it is certain, that many of them intend to be conscientious and faithful in the discharge of all their duties. Their theory of government may be perfectly correct, and they begin quite well, perhaps. They bring the child to terms, and make him feel that direct resistance to their will is hopeless and out of the question. But they do not carry an even hand. Now they are strict, even to a fault, and anon they vibrate to the opposite extreme. What they forbid one day, they allow the next. There is no certainty, no uniformity in their administration. Their own temperament is fitful. They are governed more by the east wind, than by a sober judgment. The child, if it does wrong, is in greater danger before dinner than after. He is punished, perhaps, too severely, one hour, and stuffed with cake and sugar plumbs the next, to square the account.

Now such an administration will never succeed. Children must know what to depend on. You must give them no reason to apprehend too great displeasure on the one hand, nor to hope for extreme lenity on the other. Having settled in your own minds what is right, what obedience your children owe you, and what authority it is your duty to exercise over them, you must hold a steady rein. What you are and what you require to-day, you must be and must require to-morrow. Giving with one hand and taking with the other; doing and undoing; demanding all, and then yielding more than all, is worse than lost labor. No government can be efficient, whether civil or domestic, where there is a great want of uniformity and consistency in the administration.

Secondly: *family government should be strictly impartial.*

Nothing can be more destructive of domestic harmony than parental *favoritism.* So long as children of the same family differ essentially in their characters and dispositions, (and this is often the case,) so long as some are gentle, affectionate, and obedient, and others stubborn and unfilial, it is impossible for any parent to regard them alike; and if he could, it would only show his own want of moral discrimination. He must approve and disapprove, reward and punish, with a strict regard to personal character. This is the great principle on which every good government is administered. So far as parental love consists in *complacency* a father may certainly love a dutiful better than an undutiful son. Indeed, he cannot help it, and there is no partiality in this. But if he indulges one child more than another; if he punishes this and lets that go free; if he is blind to the faults of one and severe to mark those of another, he is partial, and can never in this way govern his family well. His children will see and feel the wrong. If those who have reason to complain obey him, it will be from fear and not from affection; and he will be so far from securing the reverence and gratitude of his favorites, that they will be the first to despise his authority and "bring down his gray hairs with sorrow to the grave." If a perverse child will complain, because his privileges are abridged, and he is made to eat the bitter fruits of his own ways, there is no help for it. He might restore himself to the standing and affection which he has forfeited, if he would; and he has no more right to say, when he is punished and others are rewarded, that injustice is done him, than the thief has to complain, that he is imprisoned while his honest neighbors are unmolested. But while this is true on the one hand, let every parent guard as much as possible against all appearance of partiality on the other; and the moment the prodigal returns, and says, "father, I have sinned," let him be received with open arms, however far he may have wandered, and whatever grief he may have occasioned.

Thirdly: *family government requires unity of feeling, judgment and action.*

If parents are not of one heart and one mind, in regard to this matter, it will be found extremely difficult, if not impossible, to rule their household well. And how many families suffer from this want of *unity!* The father and mother, instead of "seeing eye to eye," and directing all their efforts to one point, differ essentially, both in theory and practice. As they do not think alike, they move in opposite directions. One parent, perhaps, is too stern, and the other too lax and indulgent. Or if one has correct views of parental authority, and the manner in which it should be exercised, the other looks at the whole subject in a very erroneous point of light. What one regards as a serious fault, the other overlooks as an excusable foible. Where one thinks the rod is called for, the other is entirely opposed to it. Where one is actuated by principle and good judgment, in the painful administration of necessary discipline, the other is swayed by a morbid tenderness, which would screen the little culprit, perhaps to his undoing.

I am aware that a perfect agreement in regard to the most judicious system of family government cannot in all cases be expected. The father and mother may not be able, though they earnestly desire it, to think alike on this subject; nor upon some others, perhaps, of great practical moment. This is exceedingly to be regretted. But although you may differ in *judgment*, you may sustain each other in *action*, and you must do it, or your authority is gone. What can the father do, if the mother takes the part of the child? Or what can the mother do, if the father comes in and takes the darling boy out of her hands? Discuss these matters between yourselves as much as you please; but never let your children know or suspect that you are not perfectly agreed. A mother will sometimes think that the father is too severe; and let her convince him of it if she can, as soon as they are alone. A father, in his turn, will sometimes think the mother injudicious; and let him do the same. But never let either interfere at the time. Suppose the most trying case that is likely to happen; suppose the child to be punished a little beyond its demerits; how trifling is the momentary suffering, compared with the mischief which would result from that kind of interference of which I am here speaking? Think alike, if possible. At all events, strengthen each other's hands, and never *seem* to differ. Let your children see, that in the administration of government you are one; that you have one heart and one aim; and that nothing is to be hoped for from any appeal that can be made to either. Take the opposite course; let the jarring of interfering and conflicting action be felt, and your house, being "divided against itself, cannot stand." Your own opinion is, that you better know how to bend the twig than your wife, or your husband, as the case may be. If this be true, render thanks to God for giving you the talent, and make the most of it; but never use it to weaken the authority of your companion, who, after all, will sometimes be nearer right than yourself.

Fourthly: it is essential to a wise and efficient domestic administration, *that each parent should carry through any course of discipline that he or she undertakes, without any direct assistance from the other.* In almost every such case, either to offer aid or apply for it, weakens the authority which it is intended to strengthen. When a father undertakes to subdue a perverse child he must do it effectually without looking any where but to God for help, and without accepting it, should it be ever so kindly offered. If the boy sees that he needs or receives any extraneous aid, his authority is weakened. In like manner, whenever the mother commands, she must be obeyed; and if there is any resistance, she must be left to overcome it by herself, especially in the nursery. The father may be convinced that he could accomplish the object sooner than the mother, and may wish to relieve her from the painful struggle in which he sees her engaged, but it will never do. What she has begun, she must finish. The child must yield, and must yield to her, and not to somebody else. She may regret that she did not leave the task to stronger nerves; but there is no retreat. She must carry her point, or her authority will be despised. Every thing of this sort, no doubt, ought to be well considered, and as far as practicable, agreed upon beforehand; and if an older child requires discipline, the father ought in most cases to undertake it. But the point on which I insist is, that what either parent actually undertakes, must be finished without any immediate and obvious help from the other.

From "Health and Beauty," by Dr. Bell.

OBESITY.

It must seem strange, that, although all our ideas of beauty of the human form are associated with those of a full and rounded outline of its several parts, the fear of excessive fulness or of fatness greatly predominates over that of leanness or even of meagreness. This is an evidence of the power of adventitious taste and of fashion over nature and those models in nature which are representatives of health and beauty. Were the human body, itself, made the subject of study, and the proportions and outlines of its several parts, especially of those concerned in locomotion, understood, in connection with their uses, we should find but little difference of sentiment on the essentials of beauty, whatsoever we might think of the lines and angles and abrupt swells of a figure made by dress. Feebleness of movement would no longer be considered graceful, nor paleness of complexion and general meagreness of frame be regarded among the attributes of beauty.

The evidences of an approach to fleshiness or a deposit of cellular and fatty matter under the skin, so as to constitute a notable fulness of feature and of limb, are often seen by their possessor with alarm; and measures, generally prejudicial to health, are at once had recourse to for their removal. The calls of appetite are disregarded, or appeased by articles which weaken and disorder the digestion, such as acids in excess, pickles, &c. This is mischievous and cruel. The dreaded fatness is kept away, it is true; but at the expense of comfort and well being ever afterwards. The stomach is irreparably injured; blood is not made in sufficient quantity nor of quality adequate to the wants of the several parts of the system. Hence the skin becomes pale and the lips are blue. If the change have been sudden, the skin, in place of gradually accommodating itself to the diminished size of the parts beneath, which by its elasticity it is able to do in health, either falls into folds and puckers or is loose and destitute of its wonted smoothness and polish.

The season of belleship over, and it may be the duties of maternity devolving on her, the victim to bad taste, who was so eager to make herself thin, will wish most earnestly for her former good appetite, and good digestion, nor fear even if somewhat of embonpoint should follow. But vain will be her wish, if the practices already adverted to, in the large and long use of acids and indigestible substances containing acid, have been followed. The chances of salutary change, even after reform is begun, will be much less if, for the sake of exhibiting a delicate waist, tight lacing has been added to the other enormity in question. The injury to the stomach and liver, and to their functions, and to the lungs and the circulation, though not perhaps beyond recovery, will yet be of long duration.

If a person suffer from obesity, either by its impeding the requisite pleasurable freedom of movements or its unseemly appearance, the cure is to be sought for by a perseverance in the following course: 1. The use of food in moderate quantities, at long intervals, and with a restriction in the amount of fluid as well as of solid; 2. Full exercise, to the extent of producing fatigue; 3. Engrossing mental occupation, so that the brain shall also be somewhat fatigued by its peculiar exercises as were the muscles of the trunk and limbs by theirs; 4. Sleep, short of its customary period, which implies of course very early rising. An active thinker and a short sleeper, a long walker and a spare feeder will seldom be burthened with flesh or require compassion for obesity.

In some countries, especially in the East, moderate fulness is considered beautiful; and the extreme of obesity has found royal admirers, in the persons of the kings of some of the Sandwich Islands.

That corpulency, to even an unwieldy extent, may be brought down within comfortable limits we have many well attested proofs. Dr. Cheyne, who weighed thirty-two stone (14 lbs. to the stone) reduced himself one-third, and enjoyed good health till the age of seventy-two. Numerous instances of the kind are mentioned, where journals of gradual reduction were kept. The following is an abstract of one of them, in the case of a person, who, on the 17th of June, 1820, weighed twenty-three stone two pounds.

June 17,	23 stone	2 pounds.
July 27,	21 "	10 "
September 10,	20 "	7 "
October 10,	19 "	3 "
November 10,	18 "	11 "
December 10,	18 "	4 "
December 25,	18 "	1 "

In another case, attended by Dr. Gregory of Edinburgh, the patient weighed twenty-three stone, and by a regular system of diet was brought down to fifteen stone, being a reduction of a hundred and twelve pounds. In this instance brown bread with a certain quantity of bran in it was employed. A baker in Pye Corner, (London,) weighed thirty-four stone, and would frequently eat a small shoulder of mutton, baked in his oven, and weighing five pounds: he, however, persisted for one year to live upon water gruel and brown bread, by which he lost two hundred pounds of his bulk.

LEANNESS.

We are not to suppose that there is a uniform proportion between the quantity and quality of food eaten and the size and corpulence of the individual. Some of the most ravenous eaters have had the leanest bodies, and some of the most rotund and fat figures have been moderate in their living.

There is no better, and perhaps it should be added less easy, means of removing leanness and its straight lines and furrows than cheerfulness and a composed mind. To laugh and grow fat, is one of the truest proverbs; but in this ultilitarian age, in which children, even, are crammed with cakes and confectionary in one establishment, and with chosen morsels and essences, or, more vernacularly expressed, with the odds and ends of all the sciences in another, this is now-a-days seldom witnessed. Then, in after life, the thirst for gold and office among men, and the craving for dress and gewgaws and show among women, and the heart-burnings and anxieties respecting their social position among all; liquor and tobacco with one sex; coffee and tea with the other; indolence alternating with over exertion in both, induce a state of feeling most incompatible with that which would prompt to laughter and incline us to grow fat.

Various expedients, in addition to an improved diet, have been resorted to, for the restoration of lean persons to a better case; but amongst the most singular which we have on record is that of flagellation. Galen says, that horse dealers having been observed to fatten horses for sale, by flogging them, an analogous method might be useful with spare persons who wish to become stouter. He, also, mentions slave-dealers who employed similar means. Suetonius informs us that Musa, the favourite physician of Augustus, used to fustigate him, not only to cure him of sciatica, but to keep him plump. Meibomius pretends that nurses whip little children to fatten them, that they may appear healthy and chubby to their mothers. No doubt but flagellation determines a greater afflux of blood to the surface, and may thus tend to increase the circulation, and give tone to parts which would otherwise be languid.*

As flagellation is now out of fashion and fallen into disuse, both in church and state, prisons and schools, we may be content to take the hint which the practice furnishes and obtain the application of the philosophy by gentler methods. There is no doubt, that a greater determination of blood to the surface will give fulness and activity of growth to the skin and soft parts beneath. Hence the advantage, in reference to the point which now engages our attention, apart from the considerations on which the customs has already recommended, of the use of the warm bath and, subsequently, of even rough and assiduously continued friction of the skin.—*Bell on Health and Beauty.*

From the Literary Messenger.

POPULAR ERRORS.

That a contract, made on Sunday, is not binding.

That, in order to exclude a child from a share in his father's estate, the father's will must give him something, however small, or mention him in any manner.

That a lawyer to succeed in his profession, is obliged to utter falsehood.

That the citation of many books or the use of learned words, is a sign of learning.

That persons who clamour for *practice* as better than *theory*, and are celebrated by themselves and their friends as practical men, are always more trustworthy than those whom they deride as "theorists." The former have usually no guide but their own (often narrow) experience; the latter sometimes have the lights gathered by a thousand clear and active minds, during ages of diligent and enlarged observation. A properly constructed theory is the methodized, the digested result, of what has been seen and done by hundreds of "practical men."

That a *first love* is necessarily purer, or stronger, than a second, or third, or fourth love.

That keeping the door open in cold weather is conducive to health.

That other people have not as many, or as great causes of unhappiness, as ourselves.

That any simpleton will do for a legislator.

That a man, whom his neighbours would not trust with a hundred dollars of their own money, is fit to be trusted with the most important public interests.

That *education* consists only in being sent to school; or in book learning.

That political consistency is shown by adhering constantly to the same men, through all changes of conduct and opinion.

That it is *inconsistency* to think with one party on some points, and with an opposite party on other points.

IMPRISONMENT OF AUTHORS.

Imprisonment has not always disturbed the man of letters in the progress of his studies, but often unquestionably has greatly promoted them.

In prison, Boethius composed his work on the Consolations of Philosophy; and Grotius wrote his Commentary on St. Matthew, with other works: the detail of his allotment of time to different studies, during his confinement, is very instructive.

Buchanan, in the dungeon of a monastery in Portugal, composed his excellent Paraphrase of the Psalms of David.

Cervantes composed the most agreeable book in the Spanish language during his captivity in Barbary.

Fleta, a well-known law production, was written by a person confined in the Fleet for debt: the name of the *place*, though not that of the *author*, has thus been preserved; and another work, "Fleta Minor, or the Laws of Art and Nature in knowing the Bodies of Metals, &c. by Sir John Pettus, 1683;" who gave it this title from the circumstance of his having translated it from the German during his cenfinement in this prison.

Louis the Twelfth, when Duke of Orleans, was long imprisoned in the Tower of Bourges, applying himself to his studies, which he had hitherto neglected: he became in consequence an enlightened monarch.

Margaret, Queen of Henry the Fourth, king of France, confined in the Louvre, pursued very warmly the studies of elegant literature, and composed a very skilful apology for the irregularities of her conduct.

Charles the First, during his cruel confinement at Holmsby, wrote the Eikon Basilike, *The Royal Image*, addressed to his son: this work has, however, been attributed by his enemies to Dr. Gauden, who was incapable of writing the book, though not of disowning it.

Queen Elizabeth, while confined by her sister Mary, wrote several poems, which we do not find she ever could equal after her enlargement: and it is said Mary Queen of Scots, during her long imprisonment by Elizabeth, produced many pleasing poetic compositions.

Sir Walter Raleigh's unfinished History of the World, which leaves us to regret that later ages had not been celebrated by his sublime eloquence, was the fruits of eleven years of imprisonment. It was written for the use of Prince Henry, as he and Dallington, who also wrote "Aphorims" for the same Prince, have told us: the prince looked over the manuscript. Of Raleigh it is observed, to employ the language of Hume, "They were struck with the extensive genius of the man, who, being educated amidst naval and military enterprises, had surpassed, in the pursuits of literature, even those of the most recluse and sedentary lives; and they admired his unbroken magnanimity, which at his age, and under his circumstances, could engage him to undertake and execute so great a work as his History of the World."

The plan of the *Henriade* was sketched, and the greater part composed, by Voltaire, during his imprisonment in the Bastile: and "the Pilgrim's Progress" of Bunyan was produced in a similar situation.

Howel, the author of "Familiar Letters," wrote the chief part of them, and almost all his other works, during his long confinement in the Fleet prison: he employed his fertile pen for subsistence, and in all his books we find much entertainment.

Lydiat, while confined in the King's Bench for debt, wrote his Annotations on the Perian Chronicle, which were first published by Prideaux. This was that learned scholar whom Johnson alludes to: an allusion not known to Boswell and others.

Freret, when imprisoned in the Bastile, was permitted only to have bayle for his companion. His dictionary was always before him, and his principles were got by heart. To this circumstance we owe his works, animated by all the powers of scepticism.

Sir William Davenant finished his poem of Gondibert, during his confinement by the rebels in Carisbroke Castle.

De Foe, when imprisoned in Newgate for a political pamphlet, began his Review; a periodical paper, which was extended to nine thick volumes in quarto, and it has been supposed served as the model of the celebrated papers of Steele. There he also composed his Jure Divino.

Wicquefort's curious work on "Ambassadors" is dated from his prison, where he had been confined for state affairs. He softened the rigour of those heavy hours by several historical works.

One of the most interesting facts of this kind is the fate of an Indian scholar, of the name of Maggi. Early addicted to the study of the sciences, and particularly to the mathematics and military architecture, he defended Famagusta, besieged by the Turks, by inventing machines which destroyed their works. When that city was taken in 1571, they pillaged his library, and carried him away in chains. Now a slave, after his daily labours he amused a great part of his nights by literary compositions; *De Tintinnabulis*, on Bells, a treatise still read by the curious, was actually composed by him when a slave in Turkey, without any other resource than the erudition of his own memory, and of the genius of which adversity could not deprive him.—*Curiosities of Literature.*

---

* MILLINGEN'S *Curiosities of Medical Experience.*

AGRICULTURAL.

From the Genesee Farmer.

PRESERVATION OF THE POTATO.

One can form something of an estimate how extensively the potato enters into use as an article of food among the American people, from the complaints we hear from all parts of the country, or at least with very few exceptions, of the partial failure of that crop the present season. We frequently hear people when instituting a comparison between that root and bread, declare they would sooner part with their wheat bread, than with their potato; and these are not the poorer classes, but respectable wealthy people. Now, though we do not carry our affection to this esculent as far as this, yet we are "free to acknowledge" that a good potato is a good thing, and an inferior one, the worst of bad things. An unripe or defective potato, is one of the most indigestible and unwholesome kinds of aliments that can be taken into the stomach, if indeed there is any aliment about it all; and from the specimens we have seen at numerous tables this year, we have no doubt that many of the cases of illness that have been charged upon hot weather, bad water, *malaria*, and a variety of other things, are justly due to the swallowing potatoes as hard and as heavy, as well as about the size of ounce balls.

The potato, in its original uncultivated state, is decidedly poisonous; and whenever it is used in an imperfect or unripe state, the result is not widely different now. Owing most likely to the hot dry weather, potatoes, this year, are generally of an inferior quality, and hence more pains and care should be taken in selecting those intended for food, and greater attention paid to preserving them, than in years like the last, when among thousands of bushels there was scarcely a defective one. Ireland, on the other side of the Atlantic, and Nova Scotia on this side, are the most celebrated for the excellence of their potatoes, and both have a temperature comparatively low, and an atmosphere moist and humid. If such a climate and temperature is required for the perfection of this root, will not the hot weather we have had the present year, account most satisfactorily for its little value, and also show why its growth is impossible in our more southern states, or still nearer the equinox.

Potatoes almost instinctively shun the light and air. These things so indispensable to the perfection of many other things, are most injurious to the potato, and the grand secret of its preservation lies in the most perfect exclusion of these silent but active agents. To perceive the difference between roots exposed, and those secluded, we have only to take one which has grown partially above ground, and one that has ripened in its proper place. The one will be green on the exterior, hard, heavy and bitter in the interior, while the other will be of the natural colour, farinaceous, and fine flavoured. Farmers should take lessons from these facts, and conform their practice to the teachings of nature. In England and Scotland, where most serious complaints have arisen from the failures of the planted tubers, it is acknowledged by all, that roots which are allowed to remain in the ground during the winter never fail of vegetating, and that those secured by pitting are more likely to succeed than those put into cellars, and thus partially exposed to light and air.

The most common method of preserving potatoes is to put them into bins in the cellar, where they are left without any covering or other preparation, and used as wanted. It is also customary to get in as little dirt with them as possible, and one standard of good farming has been the clean state of a farmer's potatoes when deposited in his cellar. For the reasons given above, and from our own experience, we think both these modes of securing potatoes, or preparing them, erroneous. If put into bins, they should be covered as closely as possible from light and air; and if there is dirt enough thrown into the bin to completely fill all the interstices between them, so much the better for the roots. It has been recommended by some potato growers, and the practice is founded in reason, to line the sides of the bins with turf, the lower sides placed inwards, and when the bin was filled, to cover it closely in the same way, and with the same material.

Owing to the severity of our winters, potatoes cannot be allowed to remain where they grow; else their mealiness and freshness, would be much increased by allowing those that are to be used the coming season to remain where they are till the spring opens. Since this cannot be, the method of preservation that approaches the nearest to this will be found the best, and this method doubtless is pitting, or as most of our farmers term it, burying in holes in the field. In burying in this way care should be taken not to put too many in a pit, or in other words, not make the heaps too large. Twenty or twenty-five bushels is quite enough; and some prefer even a smaller number. The cone should be regular so as to be covered equally. The covering of straw and earth first put on should not be too thick, as otherwise the roots will heat, and be injured; but at the latest period allowable, the thickness of the covering should be increased so as effectually to prevent freezing. In covering potatoes in the fall, it should be remembered that the great object of the first covering, is simply to exclude air and light, and preserve them from rain or unfavourable weather, and the last covering is the one to be relied on as a defence against the frost. If the roots are dug and pitted immediately without unnecessary exposure, and if the ground and the process of covering is properly selected and performed, the potatoes will come out in the spring, in excellent order, rather improved than deteriorated by their winter's keeping.

Farmer's who are in the habit of making their pork from potatoes, or feeding them extensively to their stock, will undoubtedly see the propriety from the present high prices, of sorting their roots more carefully than they have hitherto done, in order to sell, or preserve, as many as possible. The apprehended scarcity of this root will also prompt to this course; and should induce all to adopt the best and most effectual measures to preserve through the winter uninjured, or, if possible, improved, this root on which so many rely for sustenance.

From the Practical Farmer.

CLEANING NEAT CATTLE.

The following we translated, and we would invite the attention of farmers to the subject. Our German correspondent is the right kind of man. He gives his notions well confirmed by experience.—*Editor.*

XENIA, OHIO, June 14, 1838.

Mr. Editor—Allow me through the "Farmer," to say a word to my fellow farmers on, what seems to me, an important subject. In this country, you will seldom find a curry-comb and hand brush in the cow-stable; these are considered indispensable in the horse stable; but I consider them as indispensable in the cow-stable, as in the horse-stable. Why farmers do not curry and brush their cows, I know not, unless it be that they think cleanliness is not so necessary to the cow as to the horse.

But if we will, for a moment, consider the evils arising from this neglect, the importance of keeping cows clean must strike every reflecting mind. It is well known that no animal, neither horse nor cow, can be healthy, unless *the insensible perspiration goes on regularly*, and this can never be going on if cows are kept in a dirty stable, and no pains taken to rub off carefully the dirt or matter which obstructs the vessels or pores of the skin.

Wherever cows are regularly curried and rubbed, they are invariably stronger, and in a healthy condition; not liable to *cutaneous* and other diseases; and from experience I know they yield more milk, and that too of a better quality—a cleaner milk, richer cream and sweeter butter, necessarily follows.

I make it a practice to curry my cows once a day very carefully—I never suffer any dung to stick to their coats—it looks bad and injures the cows. This useful animal does not deserve such *dirty treatment.* Give them litter sufficient, and remove the dung regularly, and this part is accomplished.

Many of our farmers seem to think that in order to have healthy and good cows, you need only feed them with a sufficiency of food; however, I am fully convinced from experience, that cows may be well supplied with food, still they will not be as profitable as they would be if kept perfectly clean, and free from all kind of dirt and matter obstructing perspiration, as above stated; besides this, if cows are kept perfectly clean, they will thrive upon a less quantity of food.

Cows are often subject to have swollen teats and udders, as well as other excrescences. These may be prevented if the parts be occasionally washed with warm water. The udder and teats should be carefully washed immediately before the cow is milked. It has been well said by *Loudon*; "Go to the cow stall—take with you cold water and a sponge, and wash each cow's udder clean before milking; dowse the udder with cold water, winter and summer, as it braces and repels heat."

If you think the above worthy a place in the Farmer, I may then continue my remarks by saying something on the "*feeding of cows,*" in my next letter—send me the Farmer regularly. Yours,

DAVID HEYMACKER.

An important invention has lately been patented for the purpose of diminishing the draft of vessels. Two or more buoys are to be made of canvass or other suitable material, rendered impervious by India rubber, which can be filled with air by means of an air pump, and are connected by hollow tubes, with an air chamber in the after part of the vessel. By inflating these buoys, a vessel drawing 17 feet can be lifted 6 or 8 feet out of the water, as may be required. The importance of this in passing bars and obstructions at the mouths of rivers and bays, will prove immense; and will prevent great expense and delay in lightening, &c.—*Boston Gazette.*

PHŒNICIAN COIN.—A very curious though rather rudely executed copper coin has been found in digging up the pavement in Goldsmith street, Exeter. It is undoubtedly Phœnician or Tyrian, and bears on one side an antique bust to the left, a bow in front of it. The reverse seems to present an oblong or rhomboidal figure, divided in the centre by what appears a bridge with arches, or a galley with oars.

COMETS.—M. Arago has announced that M. Walsh has within these few days indistinctly perceived the comet which makes its return every three years, and is to be visible in the course of the present month. The Director of the Observatory at Breslau was, however, enabled as early as 18th August to make some observations respecting this luminary. M. Arago suggests that it would be interesting to inquire at this opportunity into the truth of the opinion of M. Walsh, that the diameters of comets eiminish in proportion to their proximity to the sun.

PUBLICATION OFFICE.

No. 27, Sansom street, Philadelphia; where all communications are to be addressed.

TERMS.—$2 per annnm, payable in advance.